GOVERNMENT OF TAMIL NADU

STANDARD TEN

SOCIAL SCIENCE

A publication under Free Textbook Programme of Government of Tamil Nadu

Department of School Education

Untouchability is Inhuman and a Crime

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HOW TO USE THE BOOK

Learning Objectives
The scope of the lesson is presented.

Introduction
The subject to be discussed in the lesson is Introduced.

QR Code
Leads the students to animated audio, video aids for getting experiential learning.

Do You Know?
Provides additional information related to the subject in boxes to stir up the curiosity of students.

Infographs
Visual representations intended to make the complex simple and make the students grasp difficult concepts easily.

Fun with History
Activities for 'learning by doing' individually or in groups.

Summary
Describes the main points briefly in bullets for recapitulation.

Exercise
For self-study and self evaluation.

Glossary
Key words and technical terms explained at the end of the lesson for clarity.

Reference
List of books and net sources for further reading.

ICT Corner
Using technology for learning activites, which enables the students to access degital sources relevant to their lessons.

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HISTORY

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Unit - 1

Outbreak of World War I and Its Aftermath

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The race for colonies leading to rivalry and clashes among the great powers of Europe
- Emergence of Japan as the strongest and most aggressive power in East Asia
- Colonialism's impact on Africa
- Causes, course and results of the First World War
- Treaty of Versailles and its provisions
- Causes, course and outcome of the Russian Revolution
- Foundation, functioning and failure of the League of Nations

Introduction

1914 is a turning point in world history. The political and social processes that began in 1789 culminated in the First World War that broke out in that year and decisively shaped the course of the twentieth century. Historians therefore call this as 'the long nineteenth century'. This was the first industrial war that drew on the economic resources of the entire world, and also affected large sections of the civilian population. The political map of the world was redrawn. Three major empires lay shattered by the end of the War: Germany, Austria–Hungary, and the Ottomans. The biggest outcome of the War was the Russian Revolution. It was a unique event as well as the first revolution of its kind in world history. For the first time, countries tried to bring about world peace through the League of Nations. In this lesson, we discuss the circumstances leading to the outbreak of the First World War and its repercussions, including the Russian Revolution and the formation of an international peace organisation, namely the League of Nations.

1.1 Scramble for Colonies

Capitalist Countries' Race for Markets

The aim of capitalistic industry was to produce more and more. The surplus wealth thus produced was used to build more factories, railways, steamships and other such undertakings. Revolution in the means of communication and transportation in the latter half of the nineteenth century facilitated the process of European expansion in Africa and other places.

A striking feature of nineteenth century was that Europe emerged as the dominant power while Asia and Africa were colonized and exploited. Within Europe, England held a pre-eminent position as the world leader of capitalism. An ever-growing demand for markets and raw materials made the capitalist powers race around the world for expanding their empire for exploitation.

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Rise of Monopoly Capitalism

After 1870, the alliance of industry and finance seeking profits in markets for goods and capital, which was an essential characteristic of imperialism, became evident in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The old ideas of free trade collapsed. There were trusts in the USA and cartels in Germany.

A trust is an industrial organisation engaged in the production or distribution of any commodity. The trust would possess adequate control over the supply and price of that commodity to its own advantage.

Imperialism and its Essential Characteristics

Capitalism inevitably led to imperialism. According to Lenin, imperialism is the highest stage of capitalism. Besides being a market for surplus goods, colonies served another purpose. Imperialism was not just about colonies. It became a total system, the logic of which was total militarisation and total war.

1.2 Rivalry of Great Powers

Europe

In the nineteenth century, European powers had colonised many other countries. By1880, most of the Asian countries had been colonised. Only Africa was left. The occupation, division and colonisation of Africa took place from 1881 to 1914. After 1870, England, France, Belgium, Italy and Germany joined in the scramble for colonies.

Clashes amongst Great Powers

Despite the lead in industrial growth and the control of a vast empire England was not satisfied. England was in competition with Germany and the United States, which were producing cheaper manufactured goods and thus capturing England's markets. National rivalry led to frequent clashes between these great powers in Asia and Africa and Europe.

Asia: The Rise of Japan

In Asia, Japan during this period (Meiji era from 1867 to 1912), imitating Western nations had become their equal in many respects. Though the outlook of the rulers still remained feudal, Japan took to Western education and machinery. With a modern army and navy, Japan had emerged as an advanced industrialised power. In 1894 she forced a war on China. The crushing defeat of China by little Japan in the Sino-Japanese War (1894-95) surprised the world. Despite the warning of the three great powers Russia, Germany and France – Japan annexed the Liaotung peninsula with Port Arthur. By this action Japan proved that it was the strongest nation of the East Asia.

Japan, however, in view of the pressure mounted by European Powers, soon gave up its claim over Port Arthur. Russia took advantage of this and sent a large army to Manchuria. Japan entered into an alliance with England in 1902 and demanded that Russia withdraw troops from Manchuria. Russia underestimated Japan. In 1904 the war began between the two countries. In this Russo-Japanese War, Japan defeated Russia and got back Port Arthur. After this War Japan entered the "circle of the great Powers".

Strong-arm Diplomacy of Japan

After 1905 Japan took control of Korean domestic and foreign policy. The assassination of a prominent Japanese diplomat provided the excuse in 1910 for Japan's annexation of Korea. The confusion in China following the downfall of the Manchu dynasty in 1912 provided Japan an opportunity for further expansion. Japan demanded the transfer of German rights in Shantung to Japan and the recognition of Japanese hold over Manchuria. This strong-arm diplomacy aroused the hostility of both China and the European Powers.

Colonisation and its Fallout

In 1876 barely 10 percent of Africa was under European rule. By 1900 practically the

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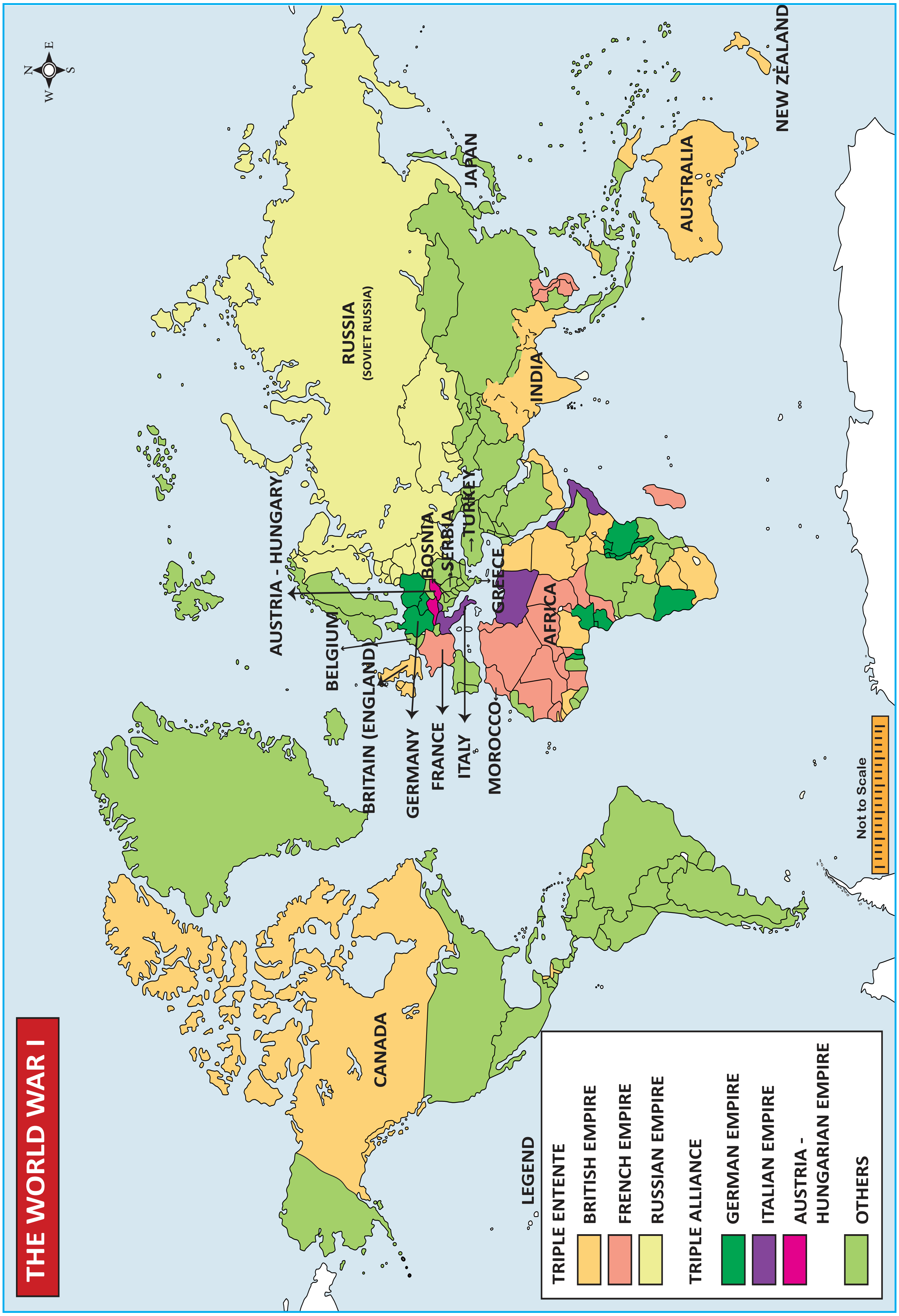

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whole of Africa was colonised. Britain, France and Belgium had divided the continent between them, leaving a few areas for Germany and Italy. Britain, France, Russia and Germany also established "spheres of influence" in China. Japan took over Korea and Taiwan. France conquered Indo-China. The US took the Philippines from Spain, and Britain and Russia agreed to partition Iran.

The first European attempts to carve out colonies in Africa resulted in bloody battles. The French had to fight a long and bitter war to conquer Algeria and Senegal. The British lost to the Zulus (1879) and to the Sudanese Army (1884). The Italian army suffered a devastating defeat at the hands of an Ethiopian army at Adowa (1896).

1.3 Causes, Course and Results of World War I

(a) Causes

European Alliances and Counter-Alliances

In 1900 five of the European Great Powers were divided into two armed camps. One camp consisted of the Central Powers-Germany, Austria-Hungary and Italy. Under the guidance of Bismarck, they had formed the Triple Alliance in 1882. The understanding was that Germany and Austria would help each other. The other camp consisted of France and Russia. Their alliance was formed in 1894 with the promise of mutual help if Germany attacked either of them. An isolated Britain wanted to break her isolation and approached Germany twice but in vain. As Japan was increasingly hostile towards Russia, as France was the ally of Russia, it preferred to ally with Britain (1902). The Anglo-Japanese Alliance prompted France to seek an alliance with Britain to resolve colonial disputes over Morocco and Egypt. This resulted in the Entente Cordiale (1904). In return for letting the French have a free hand in Morocco, France agreed to recognize the British occupation of Egypt. Britain subsequently reached an agreement with Russia over Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet. Thus was formed the Triple Entente of Britain, France and Russia.

Violent Forms of Nationalism

With the growth of nationalism, the attitude of "my country right or wrong I support it" developed. The love for one country demanded hatred for another country. England's jingoism, France's chauvinism and Germany's Kultur were militant forms of nationalism, contributing decisively to the outbreak of War.

Aggressive Attitude of German Emperor

Kaiser Wilhelm II

Emperor Kaiser Wilhelm II of Germany proclaimed that Germany would be the leader of the world. The German navy was expanded. The sea being considered a preserve of England ever since Napoleon's defeat at Trafalgar (1805), Germany's aggressive diplomacy and rapid building of naval bases convinced Britain that a German navy could be directed only against her. Therefore, Britain embarked on a naval race, which heightened the tension between the two powers.

Hostility of France towards Germany

France and Germany were old rivals. Bitter memories of the defeat of 1871 and loss of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany rankled in the minds of the French. German interference in Morocco added to the bitterness. The British agreement with France over Morocco was not consented by Germany. So Kaiser Wilhelm II intentionally recognised the independence of the Sultan and demanded an international conference to decide on the future of Morocco.

Imperial Power Politics in the Balkans

The Young Turk Revolution of 1908, an attempt at creating a strong and modern government in Turkey, provided both Austria

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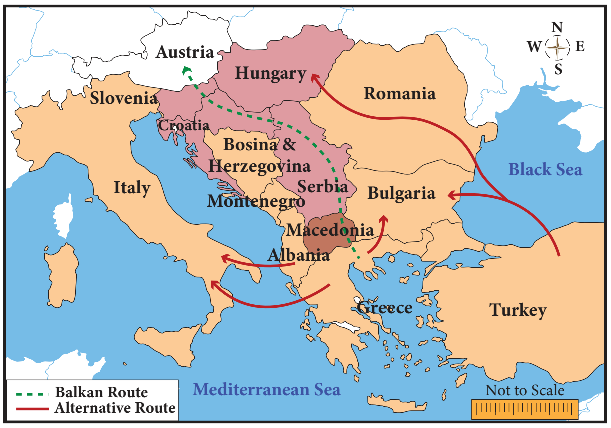
and Russia with the opportunity to resume their activities in the Balkans. Austria and Russia met and agreed that Austria should annexe Bosnia and Herzegovina, while Russia should have freedom to move her warships, through the Dardanelles and the Bosporus, to the Mediterranean. Soon after this, Austria announced the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Austria's action aroused intense opposition from Serbia. Germany gave Austria firm support. Germany went to the extent of promising that if Austria invaded Serbia and in consequence Russia helped Serbia, Germany would come to Austria's assistance. The enmity between Austria and Serbia led to the outbreak of war in 1914.

The Balkan Wars

Turkey was a powerful country in the south west of Europe in the first half of eighteenth century. The Ottoman empire extended over the Balkans and across Hungary to Poland. The Empire contained many non-Turkish people in the Balkans. Both the Turks and their subjects of different nationalities in the Balkans indulged in the most frightful massacres and atrocities. The Armenian genocide is a frightful example.



Taking advantage of the political and economic instability of the Turkish Empire from the second half of the eighteenth century, Greeks followed by others began to secede, one after another, from Turkish control. Macedonia had a mixed population. There were rivalries among Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria and later Montenegro for the control of it. In March 1912 they formed the Balkan League. The League attacked and defeated Turkish forces in the first Balkan War (1912–13). According to the Treaty of London signed in May 1913 the new state of Albania was created and the other Balkan states divided up Macedonia between them. Turkey was reduced to the area around Constantinople.

The division of Macedonia, however, did not satisfy Bulgaria. Bulgaria attacked Serbia and Greece. But Bulgaria was easily defeated. The Second Balkan War ended with the signing of the Treaty of Bucharest in August 1913.

Immediate Cause

The climax to these events in the Balkans occurred in Sarajevo in Bosnia. On 28 June 1914 the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, heir to Franz Joseph, Emperor of Austria-Hungary, was assassinated by Princip, a Bosnian Serb. Austria saw in this an opportunity to eliminate Serbia as an independent state. Germany thought that it should strike first. It declared war on Russia on 1 August. Germany had no quarrel with France, but because of the Franco-Russian Alliance, the German army which was planning a war against both France and Russia wanted to use the occasion to its advantage. The German violation of Belgian neutrality forced Britain to enter War.

(b) Course of the War

Two Warring Camps

Central Powers

The warring nations were divided into two. The Central powers consisted of Germany, Austria–Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria. Italy which was earlier with Germany and Austria had left, as her attempt to recover Trentino in north east Italy, where Italians lived in majority but remained as part and parcel of Austria-Hungary, was not supported by Germany. Italy remained a neutral country when the War broke out. But it decided to enter the War hoping to gain the territory in the north - east. Britain, France and Italy signed the secret Treaty of London in April 1915, by which Italy agreed to enter the War against the Central Powers in return for this territory after the War.

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Allies

Nine states that opposed the Central powers were: Russia, France, Britain, Italy, the United States, Belgium, Serbia, Romania and Greece. Romania and Greece declared war on the Central Powers in 1916 and 1917 respectively but played little part in the war. Most Americans wanted their country to remain neutral and so in the first three years the United States gave only moral support and valuable material aid to Britain and France.

Tsar's Abortive Attempts for Peace

Tsar Nicholas II of Russia suggested to the Powers that they meet together to bring about an era of universal peace. In response, two Peace Conferences were held at The Hague in Holland in 1899 and 1907 but in vain.

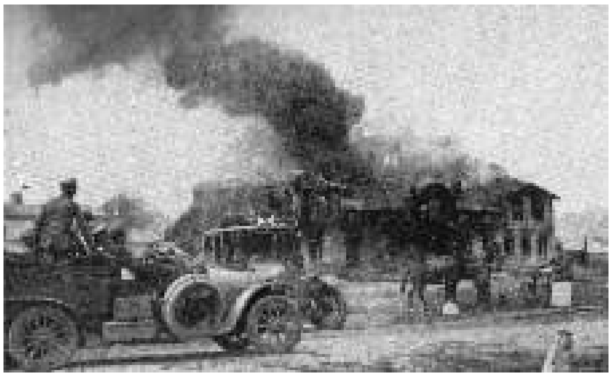
War in Western or French Front

Germany steamrolled and smashed the resistance of the people of Belgium. On the side of the Allies, the burden of the fighting fell on the French army. Within a month Paris seemed almost doomed.

Battles of Tannenberg and Marne

Meanwhile Russian forces invaded East Prussia. In the battle of Tannenberg Russia suffered heavy losses. Germany defeated them decisively. At the Battle of the Marne (early September 1914), the French succeeded in pushing back the Germans. Paris was thus saved. The battle of Marne is a memorable for **trench warfare.**

Trench Warfare: Trenches or ditches dug by troops enabled soldiers to safely stand and protect themselves from enemy fire. The main lines of trenches were connected to each other and to the rear by a series of linking trenches through which food, ammunition, fresh troops, mail, and orders were delivered.



Battle of Tannenberg

Battle of Verdun

Between February and July 1916, the Germans attacked Verdun, the famous fortress in the French line. In the five-month Battle of Verdun two million men took part and half of them were killed. The British offensive against Germans occurred near the River Somme. In this four-month Battle of Somme Britain lost 20,000 men on the first day. The battle of Verdun, however, decided the fortunes of the War in favour of the Allies.

War in Eastern or Russian front

In the eastern front, Russian troops repeatedly defeated the Austrians. But the Russians were in turn defeated by the Germans. Russia had the worst trained and equipped army and therefore Russian losses were the greatest. In 1917, the Tsarist regime in Russia was overthrown in a revolution. Russia wanted peace and consequently it signed the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (3 March 1918) with Germany.

Minor Theatres of War

In the Middle East

Turkey also fought on the side of the central powers.Though Turkey met with initial success and the Allies suffered reverses, particularly in Mesopotamia and Gallipoli, ultimately Turkey was defeated.The Turks tried to attack Suez Canal, but were repulsed. Britain attacked Turkey in Iraq, and later in Palestine and Syria.

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In the Far East

China also joined the allies. Japan was able to capture the province of Kiauchau given by the Germans to China in the province of Shantung. There was no war in the Far East. Japan made use of the occasion to threaten China into ceding valuable concessions and privileges.

In the Balkans

The Austro-German army in coordination with Bulgaria crushed Serbia. Serbia came under German rule. Rumania watched the course of the War and in August 1916 joined the Allies. Rumania also passed under Austro-German occupation.

Fate of Colonies of Germany in Africa

The German colonies in western and eastern Africa were also attacked by the Allies. As these colonies were quite far from Germany they could not receive any immediate help, and therefore surrendered to the Allies.

Italy falls to Austrian onslaught

Italy formally joined the Allies in the war in May 1916. Italians were fighting with the Austrians and continued to sustain their resistance. But when the Germans came to Austria's help, the Italians collapsed.

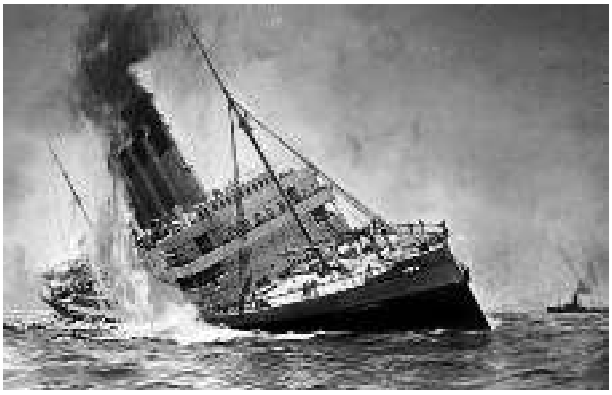
Central Powers' Victories

The Central Powers successfully occupied Belgium and a part of France in the north-east, Poland, Serbia and Romania.

The epicentre of the struggle was the western front and the seas. As the Allies controlled the sea-routes, they cut off the supply of food and other material reaching the Central Powers. In Germany and Austria women and children suffered from hunger and privation. Germany attacked England by air. Bombs were thrown on London and places where there were major factories. Later aeroplanes were used for targeting civilian population. The Germans introduced poison gas and soon both sides resorted to its use.

Naval Battles and America's Entry into the War

In 1916 a naval battle **(Battle of Jutland)** had taken place in the North Sea. The British won the battle. Thereafter Germany started their submarine warfare and their cruisers went roaming about, interfering with the shipping of the Allies. One of these was the famous Emden, which bombarded Madras. As a counter measure to the blockade the Germans proclaimed in January 1917 that they would sink even neutral ships in certain waters. *Lusitania*, an American ship, was torpedoed by a German submarine. There was a lot of resentment in the USA and President Wilson declared war against Germany in April 1917. America's entry with its enormous resources made Allied victory a foregone conclusion.



Sinking of Lusitania

(c) The Armistice and Treaty of Versailles

Germany ultimately surrendered in November 1918. The armistice took effect from 11 November 1918. Germany was forced to accept harsh terms by the political situation at home with the abdication of the Kaiser William II.

Peace Conference in Paris

The Peace Conference opened in Paris in January 1919, two months after the signing of the armistice. Woodrow Wilson (USA), Lloyd George (Prime Minister of England) and Clemenceau (Prime Minister

A News paper Report

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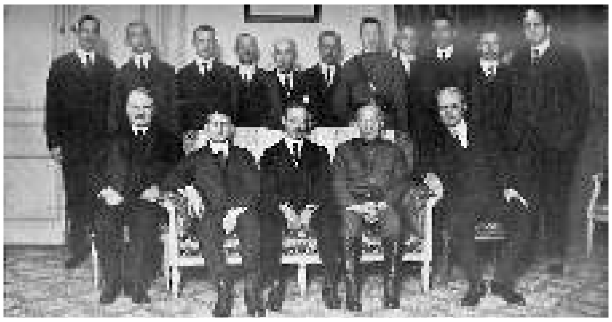
of France) played a very important part in the deliberations.



Paris Peace Conference

Faced with a threat of a renewed war, the German government was forced to agree to the terms. On 28 June, 1919 the peace treaty was signed in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles.

Provisions of the Treaty

1. Germany was found guilty of starting the War and therefore was to pay reparations for the losses suffered. All Central Powers were directed to pay war indemnity.
2. The German army was to be limited to 100,000 men. A small navy was allowed.
3. The union of Austria and Germany was forbidden.
4. All German colonies became mandated territories under the League of Nations.
5. Germany was forced to revoke the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk (with Russia) and Bucharest (Bulgaria).
6. Alsace–Lorraine was returned to France.
7. The former Russian territories of Finland, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were to be independent
8. Northern Schleswig was given to Denmark and some small districts to Belgium.
9. Poland was recreated.
10. The Rhineland was to be occupied by the Allies. The area on the east bank of the Rhine was to be demilitarized.

President Wilson laid down his Fourteen Points, which were to be followed by the Allies. The most important one he highlighted was the need for 'a general association of nations for the purpose of affording mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states like'.

Separate treaties were drawn up and signed by the Allies with Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey. The Treaty with Turkey (Treaty of Sevres), though accepted by the Sultan, failed because of the resistance of Mustafa Kemal Pasha and his followers.

Fallout of the First World War

The First World War left a deep impact on European society and polity. Through conscription, and through air raids, the War had involved and affected far more of the population than in the past. 8 million had died in four years, while more than twice as many were wounded, and many crippled for life. Millions more had succumbed to the worldwide influenza of 1918. The outcome, in all countries, was imbalance between the sexes—a shortage of men. Soldiers came to be placed above civilians.

The War and its aftermath turned out to be a stirring period of history. The most striking of all was the rise and consolidation of the Soviet Union, the U.S.S.R or the Union of Socialist and Soviet Republics, as it was called. America entered the War as a debtor country but it emerged as the money-lender to the world in the aftermath of the War.

Another outstanding event of this period was the awakening of the colonies and their inspired attempts to gain freedom.

Mustafa Kemal Pasha played a remarkable role for Turkey's rebirth as a nation. Kemal Pasha modernised Turkey and changed it out of all recognition.

Impact on India

The First World War had a significant impact on India. The British recruited a vast contingent of Indians to serve in Europe, Africa and West Asia. After the War, the soldiers came back with new ideas which had an impact on the Indian society. India contributed £ 230 million in cash and over £ 125 million in loans towards war expenses. India also sent war materials to the value £ 250 million. This caused enormous economic distress. There were grain riots as poor people looted shops. Towards the

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end of the War India too suffered under the world-wide epidemic of influenza. (£ - symbol of Pound sterling)

The War conditions led to the rise of Home Rule Movement in India. The Congress was reunited during the war.

India and Indians had taken an active part in the War believing that Britain would reward India's loyalty. But only disappointment was in store.Thus the War had multiple effects on Indian society, economy and polity.

1.4 Russian Revolution and its Impact

Introduction

The biggest outcome of the War, the Russian revolution, was unique in world history. The socio-political and economic conditions prevailing in Russia were brought to a head by the vast losses and sufferings caused by the War. There were really two revolutions in the year 1917, one in March and the other in November. On the abdication of the Tsar the bourgeois government which followed, wanted to continue the war. But the people were against it. So there was a second great uprising under the guidance their leader Lenin, who seized power and established a communist government in Russia.

Causes of the Revolution

Social Causes

In Russia Peter the Great and Catherine II attempted westernisation without changing the social conditions. The Russian peasants were serfs tied to lands owned by wealthy Russians. After Russia's defeat in the Crimean War, some reforms were introduced. In 1861 Tsar Alexander II abolished serfdom and emancipated the serfs. But they were not given enough land to subsist. These peasants became the powder keg for the revolution. The labourers and workers whose number had increased on account of industrialisation were aggrieved as they got very low wages.

Role of Revolutionaries

The spread of revolutionary ideas among the intelligentsia and their repression by the Tsar's government made the socialistically inclined students to carry their propaganda to the peasantry. Soon, based on the Marxist philosophy, new ideas began to take shape and a Social and Democratic Labour Party was formed.

Autocracy of the Tsar

Tsar Nicholas II

Tsar Nicholas II of Romanov dynasty had little experience of government. His wife Tsarina Alexandra was a dominant personality and Nicholas was under her strong influence. Determined that Russia should not be left out in the scramble for colonial possessions, Nicholas encouraged Russian expansion in Manchuria. This provoked a war with Japan in 1904. The resulting Russian defeat led to strikes and riots. On 22 January 1905 Father Gapon, a priest, organised a march of men, women and children on the Tsar's Winter Palace in St. Petersburg demanding a representative national assembly and agrarian and industrial reforms. But police and soldiers fired on the procession. Hundreds were killed and many thousands wounded. The events of this day (known as Bloody Sunday) led to riots, strikes and violence. Nicholas was forced to grant a constitution and establish a parliament, the Duma. This was no longer satisfactory to the left-wing parties that formed a Soviet (council) of worker's delegates in St Petersburg, led by Trotsky.

Opposition to Tsar and Dissolution of Duma

The outbreak of the First World War had temporarily strengthened the monarchy, as

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Russia allied to France and Britain. As there was rumour of a palace revolution. Nicholas made himself the Commander-in-Chief of the army. At the end of 1916, Rasputin, who had a domineering influence over the Tsar and the Tsarina, was murdered by a member of the Tsar's family. The members of the St. Petersburg Soviet were arrested. Whenever the Duma opposed the Tsar's move, it was dissolved and fresh elections held. Without change of government policy, the fourth Duma ended with the revolution of 1917.

Popular Uprisings

The bread shortages among women textile workers, many with husbands in the army, forced them to go on strike anyway and march through the factory areas of Petrograd, the capital of the Russian Empire. Masses of women workers demanding "Bread for workers" waved their arms towards factory workers and shouted "Come out!" "Stop work!" The city's 400,000 workers joined the movement the next day (24 February).

Revolution of 1917

Abdication of Tsar

The government used the troops to break the strike. But soon mutinies broke out in the barracks. The Tsar ordered a declaration of martial law. But his order was not broadcast in the city, as there was no one to do this job. The Tsar then tried to return to Petrograd. The railway workers stopped his train. The generals at the front and some leaders in Petrograd, frightened by these developments pleaded with the Tsar to abdicate. On 15 March, Nicholas II abdicated.

The revolutionary Tamil poet Bharathiyar cheerfully welcomed the revolution in Russia by penning these poetic lines…..

The Mother Great, the Power supreme,
Turned her glance benign towards Russia,
The Revolution of the Age,
Behold the wonder, rises high
The tyrant howling falls down limp,
The shoulders of the heavenly gods,
Are swelling now with joy and pride,
Eyes hot with unshed tears, the demons,
Perish. O people of the world,
Behold this mighty change!

Provisional Government

There were two parallel bodies to take on government functions. One was of the bourgeois politicians of the old state Duma, comprising propertied classes. On the other there were workers' delegates drawn together in a workers' council, or Soviet. Those in the Duma were able to form a provincial government with the consent of the Soviets. The Soviet was dominated by Mensheviks and the minority Bolsheviks were timid and undecided. The situation changed with the arrival of Lenin.

Failure of Provisional Government

Lenin was in Switzerland when the revolution broke out. Lenin wanted continued revolution. His slogan of 'All power to the Soviets' soon won over the workers' leaders. Devastated by war time shortages, the people were attracted by the slogan of 'Bread, Peace and Land.' But the Provisional government made two grave mistakes. First, it postponed a decision on the demand for the redistribution of land and the other was government decided to continue with the war. Frustrated peasant soldiers deserted their posts and joined those who had resorted to land grabbing. This intensified the rising in Petrograd led by Bolsheviks. The government banned *Pravda* and arrested all Bolsheviks. Trotsky was also arrested.

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Takeover by the Bolshevik Party under Lenin's leadership

In October Lenin persuaded the Bolshevik Central Committee to decide on immediate revolution. Trotsky prepared a detailed plan. On 7 November the key government buildings, including the Winter Palace, the Prime Minister's headquarters, were seized by armed factory workers and revolutionary troops. On 8 November 1917 a new Communist government was in office in Russia. Its head this time was Lenin. The Bolshevik Party was renamed the Russian Communist Party.

Lenin

Lenin was born in 1870 near the Middle Volga to educated parents. Influenced by the ideas of Karl Marx, Lenin believed that the way for freedom was through mass action. Lenin gained the support of a small majority (bolshinstvo), known as Bolsheviks, which became the Bolshevik Party. His opponents, in minority (menshinstvo), were called Mensheviks.

Outcome of the Revolution

The Russian Communist Party eliminated illiteracy and poverty in Russia within a record time. Russian industry and agriculture developed remarkably. Women were given equal rights, including rights to vote. Industries and banks were nationalised. Land was announced as social property. Land was distributed to poor peasants. Lenin thought the most important factor for the fall of Provisional government was its failure to withdraw from World War. So Lenin immediately appealed for peace. Unmindful of the harsh terms dictated by the Central Powers, Lenin opted for withdrawing from the War to concentrate on the formation of new government. In March 1918 the Treaty of Brest– Litovsk was signed.

Global Influence of the Russian Revolution

The revolution fired people's imagination across the world. In many countries, communist parties were formed. The Russian communist government encouraged the colonies to fight for their freedom. Debates over key issues, land reforms, social welfare, workers' rights, and gender equality started taking place in a global context.

Pravda is a Russian word meaning "Truth". It was the official newspaper of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union from 1918 to 1991.

1.5 League of Nations

Structure and Composition

The Covenant of the League was worked out at the Paris Peace Conference and included in each of the treaties that were signed after the First World War. It was largely due to the pressure from President Wilson that this task was accomplished. In drawing up the constitution of this organization, the ideas of Britain and America prevailed.

The League which was formed in 1920 consisted of five bodies: the Assembly, the Council, the Secretariat, the Permanent Court of Justice, and the International Labour Organisation. Each member-country was represented in the Assembly. The Council was the executive of the League. Britain, France, Italy, Japan and the United States were originally declared permanent members of the Council. Each member had one vote and since all decisions had to be unanimous, even the small nations possessed the right of veto.

The secretariat of the League of Nations was located at Geneva. Its first Secretary General was Sir Eric Drummond from Britain. The staff of the secretariat was appointed by the Secretary General in consultation with the Council. The International Court of Justice was set up

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in The Hague. The court was made of fifteen judges. The International Labour Organisation comprised a secretariat and general conference which included four representatives from each country.

Objectives of the League

The two-fold objective of the League of Nations was to avoid war and maintain peace in the world and to promote international cooperation in economic and social affairs. The League intended to act as conciliator and arbitrator and thereby resolve a dispute in its early stages. If wars should break out despite arbitration, the members should apply sanctions to the aggressor first economic and then military.

The difficulty in achieving the objectives was increased from the beginning by the absence of three Great Powers namely USA (did not become a member), Germany (a defeated nation) and Russia. The latter two joined in 1926 and 1934. While Germany resigned in 1933, Russia was expelled in 1939.

Activities of the League

The League was called in to settle a number of disputes between 1920 and 1925. The League was successful in three issues. In 1920 a dispute arose between Sweden and Finland over the sovereignty of the Aaland Islands. The League ruled that the islands should go to Finland. In the following year the League was asked to settle the frontier between Poland and Germany in Upper Silesia, which was successfully resolved by the League. The third dispute was between Greece and Bulgaria in 1925. Greece invaded Bulgaria, and the League ordered a ceasefire. After investigation it blamed Greece and decided that Greece was to pay reparations. Thus the League had been successful until signing of the Locarno Treaty in 1925. By this treaty, Germany, France, Belgium, Great Britain, and Italy mutually guaranteed peace in Western Europe. Thereafter Germany joined the League and was given a permanent seat on the Council. After two years the US and Russia began to participate in the non-political activities of the League.

Violations

One of the major problems confronting the European powers was how to achieve disarmament. In 1925 the Council of the League set up a commission to hold a Disarmament Conference to sort out the problem. But the proposed conference materialised only in February 1932. In this Conference, Germany's demand of equality of arms with France was rejected. In October Hitler withdrew Germany from the Conference and the League.

Japan attacked Manchuria in September 1931 and the League condemned Japan. So Japan also followed the example of Germany and resigned from the League. In the context of Italy's attack on Ethiopia, the League applied sanctions. As the sanctions came into effect, Italy resigned from the League in 1937. Thereafter the League was a passive witness to events, taking no part in the crises over the Rhineland, Austria, Czechoslovakia and Poland. The last decisive action it took was in December 1939 when Russia was expelled for her attack on Finland. The Assembly did not meet again and the League of Nations was finally dissolved in 1946.

Causes of Failure

The League appeared to be an organisation of those who were victorious in the First World War.

Since it lacked the military power of its own, it could not enforce its decisions.

The founders of this peace organisation underestimated the power of nationalism. The principle of "collective security' could not be applied in actual practice.

When Italy, Japan and Germany, headed by dictators, refused to be bound by the orders of the League, Britain and France were the only major powers to act decisively.

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SUMMARY

- Capitalistic countries' ever growing demand for markets and raw materials leading to scramble for colonies and the resultant clashes amongst great powers in Europe are discussed.
- Rise of Japan as an Imperial Power in Asia is highlighted
- Division of Europe into two warring camps and the resultant alliances and counter-alliances are detailed.
- Important factors responsible for the outbreak of World War I such as growth of violent forms of Nationalism, aggressive attitude of Germany, France's hostility towards Germany for the loss of its territories, Alsace and Lorrain, power politics in Balkans are explained.
- America's entry into the War in the context of launch of submarine battles by Germany and the decisive victory won by the Allies are outlined.
- Paris Peace Conference and the provisions of Versailles Treaty are analysed.
- Fallout of the First World War, with focus on Russian Revolution causes, course and impact are elaborated.
- First world peace organisation the League of Nations and its role in preventing wars and promoting peace are critically examined.

A-Z GLOSSARY

monopoly	exclusive possession or control	முற்றுரிமை
devastating	highly destructive or damage	பேரழிவு
jingoism	blind patriotism, especially in the pursuit of aggressive foreign policy	கண்மூடித்தனமான நாட்டுப்பற்று
chauvinism	extreme patriotism	அதிதீவிரப்பற்று
kultur	thinking highly of German civilization and culture	ஜெர்மானியக் கலாச்சாரத்தை மிக உயர்வாக நினைப்பது
repulse	drive back	எதிரியை விரட்டிஅடித்தல்
torpedo	attack or sink (a ship) with a torpedo	மூழ்கடி
bourgeois	characteristic of the middle class, typically with reference to its perceived materialistic values or conventional attitudes	முதலாளித்துவம்
intelligentsia	intellectuals or highly educated people as a group, especially when regarded as possessing culture and political influence	அறிவுஜீவிகள், நுண்ணறிவாளர்கள்

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EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. What were the three major empires shattered by the end of First World War?
   a) Germany, Austria Hungary, and the Ottomans
   b) Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Russia
   c) Spain, Portugal and Italy
   d) Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy
2. Which country emerged as the strongest in East Asia towards the close of nineteenth century?
   a) China b) Japan
   c) Korea d) Mongolia
3. Who said "imperialism is the highest stage of capitalism"?
   a) Lenin b) Marx
   c) Sun Yat-sen d) Mao Tsetung
4. What is the Battle of Marne remembered for?
   a) air warfare b) trench warfare
   c) submarine warfare d) ship warfare
5. To which country did the first Secretary General of League of Nations belong?
   a) Britain b) France
   c) Dutch d) USA
6. Which country was expelled from the League of Nations for attacking Finland?
   a) Germany b) Russia
   c) Italy d) France

II Fill in the blanks

1. Japan forced a war on China in the year ______.
2. The new state of Albania was created according to the Treaty of ______ signed in May 1913.
3. Japan entered into an alliance with England in the year ______.
4. In the Balkans ______ had mixed population.
5. In the battle of Tannenberg ______ suffered heavy losses.
6. ______ as Prime Minister represented France in Paris Peace Conference.
7. Locarno Treaty was signed in the year ______.

III Choose the correct statement

1. i) The Turkish Empire contained many non-Turkish people in the Balkans.
   ii) Turkey fought on the side of the central powers
   iii) Turkey's attempt to attack Suez Canal but were repulsed.
   a) i) and ii) are correct
   b) i) and iii) are correct
   c) ii) and iii) are correct
   d) i), ii) and iii) are correct

2. **Assertion**: The first European attempts to carve out colonies in Africa resulted in bloody battles.
   Reason: There was stiff resistance from the native population.
   a) Both A and R are correct
   b) A is right but R is not the correct reason
   c) Both A and R are wrong
   d) R is right but A is wrong.

IV Match the following

1.	Treaty of Brest- Litovsk	-	Versailles
2.	Jingoism	-	Turkey
3.	Kemal Pasha	-	Russia with Germany
4.	Emden	-	England
5.	Hall of Mirrors	-	Madras

V Answer briefly

1. How do you assess the importance of Sino-Japanese War?
2. Name the countries in the Triple Entente.
3. What were the three militant forms of nationalism in Europe?

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4. What do you know of trench warfare?

5. What was the role of Mustafa Kemal Pasha?

6. List out any two causes for the failure of the League of Nations.

VI Answer the following in detail

1. Discuss the main causes of the First World War.

2. Highlight the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles relating to Germany.

3. Explain the course of the Russian Revolution under the leadership of Lenin.

4. Estimate the work done by the League of Nations.

VII Activity

1. Students can be taught to mark the places of battles and the capital cities of the countries that were engaged in the War.

VIII Map Work

Mark the following countries on the world map.

1.	Great Britain	2.	Germany
3.	France	4.	Italy
5.	Morocco	6.	Turkey
7.	Serbia	8.	Bosnia
9.	Greece	10.	Austria-Hungary
11.	Bulgaria	12.	Rumania

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ICT CORNER

Outbreak of World War I and Its Aftermath

Through this activity you will learn about Time Line Events of World War -I

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on 'Learn' in menu and Select 'Interactive Timeline'
- Drag the Time line bar and click to see the events

DKF1Y

Website URL: https://www.theworldwar.org/

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Unit - 2

The World between Two World Wars

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The post-World War I developments leading to the Great Depression.
- The unjust provisions of Treaty of Versailles and the rise of fascist governments led by Mussolini in Italy and Hitler in Germany.
- Anti-colonial struggles and the decolonisation process in the colonized world: Case Studies of Indo-French in South-East Asia and India in South Asia.
- European Colonisation in Africa – The case of Britain in South Africa.
- Independence struggles and political developments in South America

Introduction

The First World War shattered the global capitalist system based on European imperialism. The European powers were gravely weakened by the War, financially and politically. The conflict between the workers and the ruling classes that controlled the government became intense. As a result of this Fascism emerged in Italy and Germany. Anti-colonial struggles got intensified as the colonial powers were weakened by the War.

As we saw in the last chapter, the crisis in the Western world had led to the outbreak of World War I. We now turn to the social and political developments in the world after the end of the War.

2.1 The Great Depression

Developments in the post-World War I

The First World War led to the expansion of certain industries in the hope that the war-time boom would continue. However, when the War came to an end, the industries that grew to meet war-time requirements had to be abandoned or modified. The situation was made worse by the political complications caused by the Treaty of Versailles. A new wave of economic nationalism which expressed itself in protectionism or in tariff barriers affected world trade. The war also placed a heavy burden of debt on every European country.

Stock Market Crash in the US

The first huge crash occurred on 24 October 1929. This discouraged investors and consumers to such an extent that more and more people began to sell their shares and dispose of their stocks. But there were no buyers. This was followed by the failure of American banks. The American financiers were forced to recall their own funds invested abroad.

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Breakdown of the International System of Exchange

Despite emergency measures such as cutbacks in expenditure and increased taxation, the situation did not improve in England. So England decided to leave the Gold Standard. Immediately a great number of countries left the gold standard. Each nation adopted a policy of protectionism and devaluation of currency. Devaluation forced creditors to stop lending. This led to a world-wide credit contraction. Thus the defensive measures adopted by various nations to safeguard their economic interests led to an unprecedented decline in world economic activity. As its effect was deep and prolonged economists and historians call it the Great Depression.

Gold Standard is a monetary system where a country's currency or paper money carried a value directly linked to gold.

Repercussion in Politics

The Depression changed the political conditions in several countries. In England, the Labour Party was defeated in the general elections of 1931. In the USA, the Republican Party was rejected by the people in successive elections for about twenty years after the Depression.

2.2 Rise of Fascism and Nazism

(a) The Impact of War in Italy

The first of the nations of Western Europe to turn against the old ruling regime was Italy. During World War I the primary task of Italy was to keep the Austrians occupied on the Southern Front, while the British, French and Americans cornered Germany into submission along the battle lines in Flanders. The financial cost of the participation in the War was huge. Moreover, after the War, in the sharing of the spoils, Italy got less than she expected. The country suffered heavy losses in a war that was unpopular with both socialists and pro-Austrian Catholics. The nationalists were equally unhappy with the marginal gain in territory from the Treaty of Versailles. The War resulted in inflation. There were frequent protests and strikes. People held the rulers responsible for the humiliation at Versailles.

Emergence of Mussolini

In the elections held November 1919 in the aftermath of the Treaty of Versailles, Italian socialists, proclaiming that they were following Bolshevism (Communism in Soviet Russia), won about a third of the seats. Mussolini, son of a blacksmith and qualified as an elementary school master, in the end became a journalist with socialist views. A forceful speaker, Mussolini began to support the use of violence and broke with the socialists when they opposed Italy's entry into the War. When the Fascist Party was founded in 1919 Mussolini immediately joined it. As Fascists stood for authority, strength and discipline, support came from industrialists, nationalists, ex-soldiers, the middle classes and discontented youth. The Fascists resorted to violence freely. In October 1922, in the context of a long ministerial crisis, Mussolini organised the Fascist March on Rome. Impressed by the show of force, the King invited Mussolini to form a government. The inability of the Democratic Party leaders to combine and act with resolution facilitated Mussolini's triumph.

Fascism is a form of radical authoritarian ultra-nationalism, characterised by dictatorial power, forcible suppression of opposition and strong regimentation of society and of the economy, which came to prominence in early 20th-century Europe. –Wikipedia.

Fascists under Mussolini

In the 1924 elections, after intimidation of the electors, 65 per cent of the votes were cast for the Fascists. Matteotti, a socialist leader, who questioned the fairness of the elections was

Mussolini

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murdered. The opposition parties boycotted the Parliament in protest. Mussolini reacted by banning opposition parties and censoring the press. Opposition leaders were killed or imprisoned. Assuming the title of Il Duce (the leader), in 1926 he became a dictator with power to legislate. He passed a law forbidding strikes and lockouts. Unions and employers were organized into corporations. In 1938 Parliament was abolished and was replaced by a body representing the Fascist Party and the corporations. This new arrangement bolstered Mussolini's dictatorial control of the economy, as well as enabling him to wield enormous power as head of the administration and the armed forces.

Mussolini's Pact with Pope

In order to give respectability to the Fascist Party, Mussolini won over the Roman Catholic Church by recognising the Vatican City as an independent state. In return the Church recognised the Kingdom of Italy. The Roman Catholic faith was made the religion of Italy and compulsory religious teaching in school was ordered. The Lateran Treaty incorporating the said provisions was signed in 1929.

Italy during the Great Depression

During the years of the Great Depression the much publicised public works of building new bridges, roads and canals, hospitals and schools did not provide solution to the unemployment problem. In 1935, Mussolini invaded Ethiopia. This was useful to divert attention of the people away from the economic troubles.

(b) Germany in the post-War

From 1918 to 1933 Germany was a republic. The factors which led to the eventual triumph of Fascism in Germany were many. Between 1871 and 1914 Germany had risen to dizzy heights of economic, political and cultural accomplishments. Germany's universities, its science, philosophy and music were known all over the world. Germany had surpassed even Britain and the US in several fields of industrial production.

Germany's defeat and humiliation at the end of World War I caused a deep shock to the of German people. The Great Depression further deepened their frustration and prompted them to turn against the Republican government.

Evolution of German Fascism

The origin of German fascism goes back to 1919 when a group of seven men met in Munich and founded the National Socialist German Workers' Party (abbreviated as Nazi Party). One of them was Adolf Hitler. During World War I, he served in the Bavarian army. A gifted speaker, he could whip up the passion of the audience. In 1923 Hitler attempted to capture power in Bavaria. His launch of the National Revolution on the outskirts of Munich landed him in prison. During his time in prison wrote *Mein Kampf* (My Struggle), an autobiographical book containing his political ideas. In the Presidential election of 1932, the Communist Party polled about 6,000,000 votes. Alarmed capitalists and property owners tilted towards supporting fascism Hitler exploited this opportunity to usurp powers.

Hitler

Social Democratic Party was founded as the General German Workers Association on 23 May 1863 in Leipzig. Founder was Ferdinand Lassalle. German elites of the late 19th century considered the very existence of a socialist party a threat to the security and stability of the newly unified Reich, and so Bismark outlawed this party from 1878 to 1890.

However, in 1945, with the fall of Hitler, the Social Democratic Party was revived. It was the only surviving party from the Weimar period with a record of opposition to Hitler.

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The Nazi State of Hitler

Republican government fell, as the Communists refused to collaborate with the Social Democrats. Thereupon industrialists, bankers and Junkers prevailed upon President Von Hindenburg to designate Hitler as Chancellor in 1933. The Nazi state of Hitler, known as Third Reich, brought an end to the parliamentary democracy.

Hitler replaced the flag of the Weimar republic by the swastika banners (卐) of National Socialism. Germany was converted into a highly centralised state. All political parties except the Nazi party were declared illegal. The army of brown-shirted and jack-booted storm-troopers was expanded. The Hitler Youth was created, and the Labour Front set up. Trade unions were abolished, their leaders arrested. Strikes were made illegal, wages were fixed by the government. Total state control was extended over the press, the theatre, the cinema, radio and over education.

The Nazi Party's propaganda was led by Josef Goebbels, who manipulated public opinion through planned propaganda. The Gestapo or Secret State Police was formed and run by Himmler.

Nazi Policy towards Jews

Along with the repressive measures, Hitler's government followed a policy of repressing Jewish people. The Jews were removed from government positions, excluded from the universities and deprived of citizenship. Jewish businesses were closed down, and their establishments were attacked. After the outbreak of World War II concentration camps, barracks surrounded by electrified fences and watch towers, were built where Jews were interred and used as forced labour. Later they were turned into extermination camps where industrial means of murder such as gas chambers were used to kill them in what the Nazis termed 'The Final Solution'.

Defiance of the Treaty of Versailles

In August 1934 Hindenburg died and Hitler, apart from being Chancellor, became both President and Commander–in-Chief of the armed forces. Hitler's foreign policy aimed at restoring the armed strength of Germany and annulling provisions of Versailles Treaty.

2.3 Anti-Colonial Movements and Decolonisation Processes in Asia

(a) French Indo-China

Rise of Anti-Colonialism

Indo-China (today's Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam) had shown its discontent right from the beginning of the French occupation (1887). While the Indo-Chinese resisted the imposition of French language and culture, they learned from them the ideas of revolution. During the First World War about 100,000 Indo-Chinese fought in France and returned with first-hand knowledge of how the French had fought and suffered during the War. Communist ideas from mainland China were also a major influence. Many became convinced that the considerable wealth of Indo-China was benefiting only the colonial power.

> Decolonisation is a process through which colonial powers transferred institutional and legal control over their colonies to the indigenous nationalist governments.

The Emergence of Viet Minh

The mainstream political party in Indo-China was the Vietnam Nationalist Party. Formed in 1927, it was composed of the wealthy and middle class sections of the population. In 1929 the Vietnamese soldiers

Ho Chi Minh

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Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969) was born in Tongking. When Ho Chi Minh was twenty one, he went to Europe. After working as a cook in a London hotel, he went to Paris. In the Paris peace conference, he lobbied for the independence for Vietnam. His articles in newspapers and especially the pamphlet, *French Colonialism on Trial*, made him well known as a Vietnam nationalist. In 1921 he became a founder-member of the French Communist party. Two years later he went to Moscow and learnt revolutionary techniques then. In 1925, he founded the Revolutionary Youth Movement.

mutinied, and there was a failed attempt to assassinate the French Governor-General. This was followed by a large scale peasant revolt led by the Communists. The revolt was crushed followed by what is called "White Terror." Thousands of rebels were killed.

After the White Terror, Ho Chi Minh left for Moscow and spent the 1930s in Moscow and China. When France was defeated by Germany in 1940, Ho Chi Minh and his lieutenants used this turn of events to advance the Vietnamese cause. Crossing over the border into Vietnam in January 1941, they organized the League for the Independence of Vietnam, or Viet Minh. This gave renewed emphasis to a distinct Vietnamese nationalism.

(b) Decolonisation in India

Dyarchy in Provinces

The decolonization process started in India from the beginning of the twentieth century with the launch of the Swadeshi Movement in 1905. The outbreak of the First World War brought about rapid political as well as economic changes. In 1919, the Government of India Act introduced Dyarchy that provided for elected provincial assemblies as well as for Indian ministers to hold certain portfolios under Transferred Subjects. The Indian National Congress rejected Dyarchy and decided to boycott the legislature.

Lack of Measures to Industrialise India

Despite the discriminating protection given to certain select industries such as sugar, cement, and chemicals, there was no change in the colonial economic policy. But in the case of indigenous industries, support was only in the form of providing "technical advice and education, and the establishment of pioneer factories in new industries". However, even this policy was soon abandoned as many British enterprises were opposed to this .

Impact of Depression on Indian Agriculture

The 'Great Depression' (1929) also dealt a death blow to Indian agriculture and the indigenous manufacturing sector. The value of farm produce, declined by half while the land rent to be paid by the peasant remained unchanged. In terms of prices of agricultural commodities, the obligation of the farmers to the state doubled. The great fall in prices prompted Indian nationalists to demand protection for the internal economy. The 1930s saw the emergence of the Indian National Congress as a militant mass movement.

Government of India Act, 1935

The British had to appease the Indian nationalists and the outcome was the passage of the Government of India Act, 1935. This provided for greater power to the local governments and the introduction of direct elections. In the 1937 elections the Congress won a resounding victory in most of the provinces. However the decision of Britain to involve India in the Second World War, without consulting the popular Congress ministries, forced the latter to resign from office.

2.4 Anti-Colonial Movements in Africa

Colonisation of Africa

The African coastline had been explored in the sixteenth century and a few European settlements had come about. But the interior of

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Africa was unknown to the outside world until the last quarter of nineteenth century. European colonisation began after about 1875. The Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884–85 resolved that Africa should be divided into spheres of influence of various colonial powers. The war between the British and Boers in South Africa, however, was in defiance of this resolution.

Boer Wars

The relations between the two British colonies of Natal and Cape Colony and the two independent Boer states of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State had long been unfriendly. The discovery of gold in Transvaal, in 1886, led to large numbers of British miners settling in and around Johannesburg. The Boers hated these people whom they referred to as Uitlanders (foreigners). The Boers taxed them heavily apart from denying political rights. So the question was whether the British or the Boers were to be supreme in South Africa. Fearing attacks from the British, the Boers armed themselves and decided to attack.

The Boer War lasted for three years, 1899-1902. Initially, the Boers were successful. But by the first half of 1900, the Boer army was defeated. Pretoria was occupied. The Boers took to guerrilla fighting. This continued for about two years. In retaliation the British destroyed farms and crops. They set up internment camps for Boer women and children. Shortage of food, medical and sanitary facilities caused the death of 26,000 people. The British annexed the two Boer states. Boers were however promised

Boer War

self-government in due course. In 1907 full responsible government was given to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The four states formed into a union and the South Africa Act passed by the British parliament in 1909 provided for a Union Parliament at Cape Town. The Union of South Africa came into being in May 1910.

> The descendents of original Dutch settlers of South Africa, also known as Afrikaners, were called Boers. Their language is Afrikaans.

Nationalist Politics in South Africa

There were two main political parties: the Unionist Party which was mainly British, and the South Africa Party which had largely Afrikaners (Boers). The first Prime Minister, Botha belonged to the South Africa Party ruled in cooperation with the British. But a militant section of the South Africa Party formed the National Party under Herzog. In the 1920 elections the National Party gained forty-four seats. The South Africa Party, now led by Smuts, secured forty-one seats. At this juncture the British-dominated Unionist Party merged with the South Africa Party. This gave Smuts a majority over the militant Afrikaner-controlled National Party.

Smuts

Racist Policy against the Blacks

The Afrikaners pursued a harsher, racist policy towards the blacks and the minority Indians. In 1923 an Act was passed to confine the native residents to certain parts of towns. Already an Act of 1913 had segregated black and white farmers, which made it impossible for the blacks to acquire land in most parts of the country. The 1924 elections were won by the National Party with the support of the Labour movement, composed mainly of white miners. The

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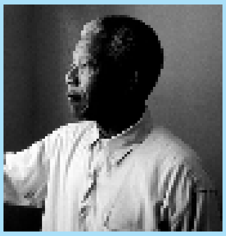
Act passed in 1924 prevented blacks from striking work and from joining trade unions. In the Cape Province the voting right to blacks was abolished. Native Blacks suffered in all spheres: social, economic and politics.

Apartheid in South Africa

Apartheid, which means separateness, became the racial policy of the Nationalist Party in 1947. From 1950 onwards a series of laws came to be enforced. The whole country was divided into separate areas for the different races. Marriage between white and non-white was forbidden. Nearly all schools were brought under government control so that education different from that of the Whites could be implemented for Africans. University education was also segregated. Apartheid is based on the belief that the political equality of White and Black in South Africa would mean Black rule. The ANC which fought the practice of racism was banned and its leader Nelson Mandela was put behind bars. Mounting pressure at the global level helped to end the racist regime in South Africa. In 1990 the ban on ANC was lifted and Mandela freed after 27 years. In the elections held subsequently the Africans were allowed to vote and ANC won the election and Mandela became the first black president of South Africa. Even though apartheid was dismantled the Whites completely dominate the economic sphere.



Nelson Mandela

BEUFH

2.5 Political Developments in South America

Mayas and Aztecs

Before the European discovery of America three centres of civilisations existed there in Mexico in Central America and in Peru in South America. The Maya, the Inca and the Aztec Civilizations were highly advanced. There were several states in each of these areas of civilisation. Well organised and strong governments existed. Around the eleventh century, large cities formed into a league of Mayapan (centre of Maya civilisation of Native Americans American Indians). For over hundred years the League of Mayapan lasted. Though Mayapan was destroyed towards the close of twelth century, other cities continued. Aztecs from Mexico conquered the Maya country in the fourteenth century and founded their capital city of Tenochtitlan. For nearly two hundred years the Aztecs ruled their empire.

European Colonisation and its Impact

In the sixteenth century (around 1519) when the Aztecs were at the height of their power, the whole empire collapsed before a handful of adventurers led by a Spaniard named Hernan Cortes. Mexican civilisation collapsed. With it the great city of Tenochtitlan also perished. This is one of the world's worst genocides. The other famous Conquistador (conqueror) was also a Spaniard by name Francisco Pizarro. who led the conquest of the Incan Empire. Later the Spaniards made Peru a part of their dominions.

Pizarro

By the late 18th century, demand for political freedom, administrative autonomy and economic self-determination was articulated throughout Latin America. There were bloody conflicts between Haitian slaves, colonists, the armies of the British and the French colonizers. These struggles led by Toussaint L'Ouverture during 1791-1804 ended in the Haitian people's independence from the colonial control of France. Haiti thus became the first Caribbean country to throw off slavery and French colonial control.

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Impact of Napoleonic Invasion of Spain and Portugal

Simon Bolivar-

Pedro I

The American and French Revolutions provided inspiration to the Latin Americans. The Napoleonic invasion of Spain and Portugal in 1808 quickened the process of liberation Struggle in South America. Already the spirit of independence was growing under the leadership of Simon Bolivar, called El Liberator, the liberator. In the case of Brazil, the Portuguese royal family in the context of conquest of Portugal by Napoleon fled from Lisbon and thereby assisted the transition of Brazil from colony to independent nation. Pedro I renouncing the claim to the Portuguese throne declared independence of Brazil.

The Monroe Doctrine

The fight for independence intensified when Napoleon fell in 1815. But Monroe, the President of the USA, came up with his famous Monroe doctrine, which declared that if Europeans interfered anywhere in America, north or south, it would amount to waging a war against the United States. This threat frightened the European powers. By 1830 the whole of South America was free from European domination. Thus the U.S. protected the South American republics from Europe; but there was no one to protect them from the Protector, the United States.

Disunity among Latin American Nationalists

Latin American nationalists fought not only Spain and Portugal but also each other. In 1821 Central America seceded from Mexico. Later (1839) Central America itself split into five republics (Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua). Uruguay split from Brazil in 1828. In 1830 Venezuela and Ecuador seceded from Gran Columbia, the republic created by Bolivar.

Latin America

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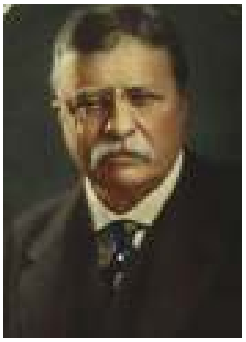
US Imperial Interests


Theodore Roosevelt

At the dawn of the twentieth century the United States had occupied Cuba and Puerto Rico, after defeating the Spanish in 1898. From 1898 to 1902 Cuba was under US military rule. When the Americans finally left they retained a naval station in Cuba. President of the USA Theodore Roosevelt made an important amendment to the doctrine in 1904. It authorised US intervention in Latin America 'in order to maintain order.' After effecting this amendment, the US became the dominant influence not only politically but also in economics.

Great Depression in South America

The situation created by the Great Depression made it impossible for oligarchic regimes to accommodate the rising expectations of several assertive groups. In Mexico, there was violent social protest involving dissatisfied segments of the oligarchy, middle-class intellectuals, and peasant communities. Elsewhere electoral reform enabled newer social groups to obtain political power through the ballot box.

Latin America protested American intervention and disliked their "dollar imperialism". The opposition to political intervention produced a change in US policy after 1933. Franklin D. Roosevelt in his "Good Neighbour" policy agreed that the US would not intervene in the internal affairs of any state, and would give economic and technical assistance to Latin America.

Dollar Imperialism, the term used to describe the policy of the USA in maintaining and dominating over distant lands through economic aid.

SUMMARY

- Intensification of anti-colonial struggles commenced from the end of the First World War
- The harsh decisions in the Paris Peace Conference against the defeated countries destabilised the ruling regimes and created a climate for the rise of fascism especially in Italy and Germany.
- The economic slump originating in the US in 1929 and subsequently affecting all capitalist countries in the world resulted in changes in polity and society.
- Decolonisation process was quickened during the inter-war period in India.
- The Munroe Doctrine prevented colonisation of Latin American countries by European powers and thereby ensured early sovereign status to them. Later this was regarded by Latin Americans as a cover for American intervention and exploitation of the resources of their countries.

GLOSSARY

solidarity	a bond of unity, support for a common cause	ஒற்றுமை உணர்வு, பொதுக்காரியத்திற்கான ஆதரவு
slump	a sudden severe or prolonged fall in the price	விலைவீழ்ச்சி, சரிவு
bankruptcy	insolvency, financial ruin	திவால், கடன் தீர்க்க முடியா நிலை
devaluation	a decrease in the value of a country's currency	பணமதிப்புக் குறைதல்
intimidation	threat, the act of making fearful	மிரட்டல், அச்சுறுத்தல்

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bolstered	strengthened	வலுப்படுத்தினர்
demoralized	having lost confidence or hope, disheartened	மனத்தளர்ச்சி அடைதல், நம்பிக்கை இழத்தல்
manipulate	control or influence a person or situation cleverly, unfairly to achieve a specific purpose	கெட்டிக்காரத்தனமாய் அல்லது சூழ்ச்சியாய் கையாளு
annulling	declaring invalid or null and void	செல்லாதாக்கல், ரத்துசெய்தல்

EXERCISE

T3RIQ

I Choose the correct answer

1. With whom of the following was the Lateran Treaty signed by Italy?
   a) Germany b) Russia
   c) Pope d) Spain
2. With whose conquest did the Mexican civilization collapse?
   a) Hernan Cortes
   b) Francisco Pizarro
   c) Toussaint Louverture
   d) Pedro I
3. Who made Peru as part of their dominions?
   a) English
   b) Spaniards
   c) Russians
   d) French
4. Which President of the USA pursued "Good Neighbour" policy towards Latin America?
   a) Franklin D. Roosevelt
   b) Truman
   c) Woodrow Wilson
   d) Eisenhower
5. Which part of the world disliked dollar imperialism?
   a) Europe b) Latin America
   c) India d) China

II Fill in the blanks

1. The founder of the Social Democratic Party was ______________.
2. The Nazi Party's propaganda was led by ______________.
3. The Vietnam Nationalist Party was formed in ______________.
4. The Secret State Police in Nazi Germany was known as ______________.
5. The Union of South Africa came into being in May ______________.
6. The ANC leader Nelson Mandela was put behind the bars for ______________ years
7. Boers were also known as ______________.

III Choose the correct statement

1. i) During World War I the primary task of Italy was to keep the Austrians occupied on the Southern Front
   ii) The first huge market crash in the US occurred on 24 October 1929.
   iii) The ban on African National Congress was lifted in 1966.
   a) i) and ii) are correct
   b) iii) is correct
   c) ii) and iii) are correct
   d) i), ii) and iii) are correct

2. **Assertion**: The Berlin Colonial Conference of 1884–85 had resolved that Africa should be divided into spheres of influence of various colonial powers.

   Reason: The war between the British and Boers in South Africa, however, was in defiance of this resolution.

   a) Both A and R are right

   b) A is right but R is not the right reason

   c) Both A and R are wrong

   d) A is wrong and R has no relevance to A

IV Match the Following

1.	Transvaal	-	President of Germany
2.	Hindenburg	-	Hitler
3.	Third Reich	-	Italy
4.	Matteotti	-	gold

V Answer briefly

1. What do you know of the White Terror in Indo-China?
2. What was the result of Mussolini's march on Rome?
3. How did Great Depression impact on the Indian agriculture?
4. Define "Dollar Imperialism."

VI Answer in detail

1. Trace the circumstances that led to the rise of Hitler in Germany.
2. Attempt a narrative account of how the process of decolonization happened in India during the inter-war period (1919-39).
3. Describe the rise and growth of nationalist politics in South Africa.

VII Activity

1. Each student may be asked to write an assignment on how each sector and each section of population in the USA came to be affected by the Stock Market Crash in 1929.
2. A group project work on Vietnam War is desirable. An album or pictures, portraying the air attacks of the US on Vietnam and the brave resistance put up by the Vietnamese may be prepared.

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Unit - 3

World War II

Learning Objectives

- To acquaint ourselves about the political and economic developments after World War I which ultimately led to World War II
- To understand the course of the War, in general; in particular, to learn the main events which were turning points in the War
- To know the effects of World War II
- To understand the “holocaust”, and the mass killing of Jews in Nazi
- To acquire knowledge about the international organisations established after the

Introduction

The first half of the twentieth century witnessed two wars which devastated the world. World War I was fought from 1914 to 1918 and World War II began in 1939 and ended in 1945. While the world at large had experienced many wars, these two wars are referred to as “World” wars because of the extended areas of the conflict and the very high death toll of civilians as well as armed combatants. Both wars were fought on several fronts across Europe, Asia and Africa.

In both wars, the combined forces of Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States fought against a war alliance led by Germany. Germany’s allies were Italy and Japan in World War II.

3.1 Causes, Course and Effects of World War II

(a) Causes

The devastation caused by World War I was of such magnitude that it was referred to as The Great War, or The War to End All Wars. The belligerent nations, especially the Allies, had no desire for a second prolonged conflict, and this was the main driving force behind their actions after the end of World War I. The immediate and primary cause of World War II was the aggressive military offensive undertaken by a resurgent Germany and a fast developing Japan.

Germany and Treaty of Versailles, 1919

The Treaty of Versailles ending World War I was signed in June 1919. Among the many clauses of the Treaty, three in particular caused great resentment among the Germans. (i) Germany was forced to give up territories to the west, north and east of the German border; (ii) Germany had to disarm and was allowed to retain only a very restricted armed force; (iii) as reparations for the War, Germany was expected to pay for the military and civilian cost of the War to the Allied nations.

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Failure of League of Nations

The Treaty also set up the League of Nations, on the initiative of President Woodrow Wilson of the United States. The League was expected to mediate between countries and take action against countries which indulged in military aggression. The popular mood favoured the traditional isolationist approach, and therefore the United States did not become a member of the League. The other Allied nations were also determined to maintain a non-interventionist attitude and, in consequence, the League remained an ineffectual international body.

Post-War Crisis and Germany

As mentioned above the three main clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, especially the imposition of penal reparations caused great discontent in Germany. The problems which many countries faced in the post-World War I decades led to the rise of extreme right wing dictatorships in Italy (Mussolini), Germany (Hitler) and Spain (Franco).

Germany experienced both high unemployment and severe inflation after the War, and its currency became practically worthless. There are several pictures of the 1920s when ordinary people had to carry money in wheelbarrows to buy bread. This was blamed on the war reparations which Germany was forced to pay, though in the final analysis, the demands for war reparations were moderated over several rounds of negotiations.

The Rise of Adolf Hitler

Adolf Hitler was able to exploit the general discontent among the Germans. Gifted with great oratorical skills, he was able to sway the people by his impassioned speeches, promising a return to the glorious military past of Germany. He founded the National Socialist party, generally known as "the Nazis". The fundamental platform on which Hitler built his support was the notion of the racial superiority of the Germans as a pure, 'Aryan' race and a deep-seated hatred of the Jews. Hitler came to power in 1933 and ruled Germany till 1945.

In direct contravention of the clauses of the Treaty of Versailles, Hitler began to re-arm Germany. The recruitment for the armed forces and the manufacture of armaments and machinery for the army, navy and air force with large amounts of government spending resulted in an economic revival and solved the problem of unemployment in Germany.

Italy's break with Britain and France in the wake of Mussolini's invasion of Ethiopia resulted in better relationship between Italy and Germany. In 1936, before Germany invaded the Rhineland, which was supposed to be a demilitarised zone, Rome - Berlin Axis had come into being. Later, with Japan joining this alliance, it became Rome-Berlin-Tokyo Axis. In 1938, Hitler invaded Austria and Czechoslovakia. Sudetenland in Czechoslovakia was German speaking, and Hitler's claim was that the German speaking people should be united in to one nation.

Allies and Non-Intervention

There were also acts of aggression by Italy and Japan. Italy invaded Ethiopia in 1935 and Albania in 1939. Emperor Haile Selassie of Ethiopia appealed to the League of Nations, but got no help. In the East, Japan was pursuing its policy of military expansion. In 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria, and in 1937 it invaded China and seized Beijing. All these were ignored by the Allies and the League of Nations was unable to take any action.

In spite of all these manifestations of military activity by Germany, Italy and Japan, Britain and France continued to be non-interventionist. The mood in Britain was not in favour of starting another war. Prime Ministers Baldwin and Chamberlain did not feel justified in intervening in a region which was not officially in their sphere of interest. The United States was totally indifferent to the outside world, and was concerned with the revival of the economy after the Great Depression.

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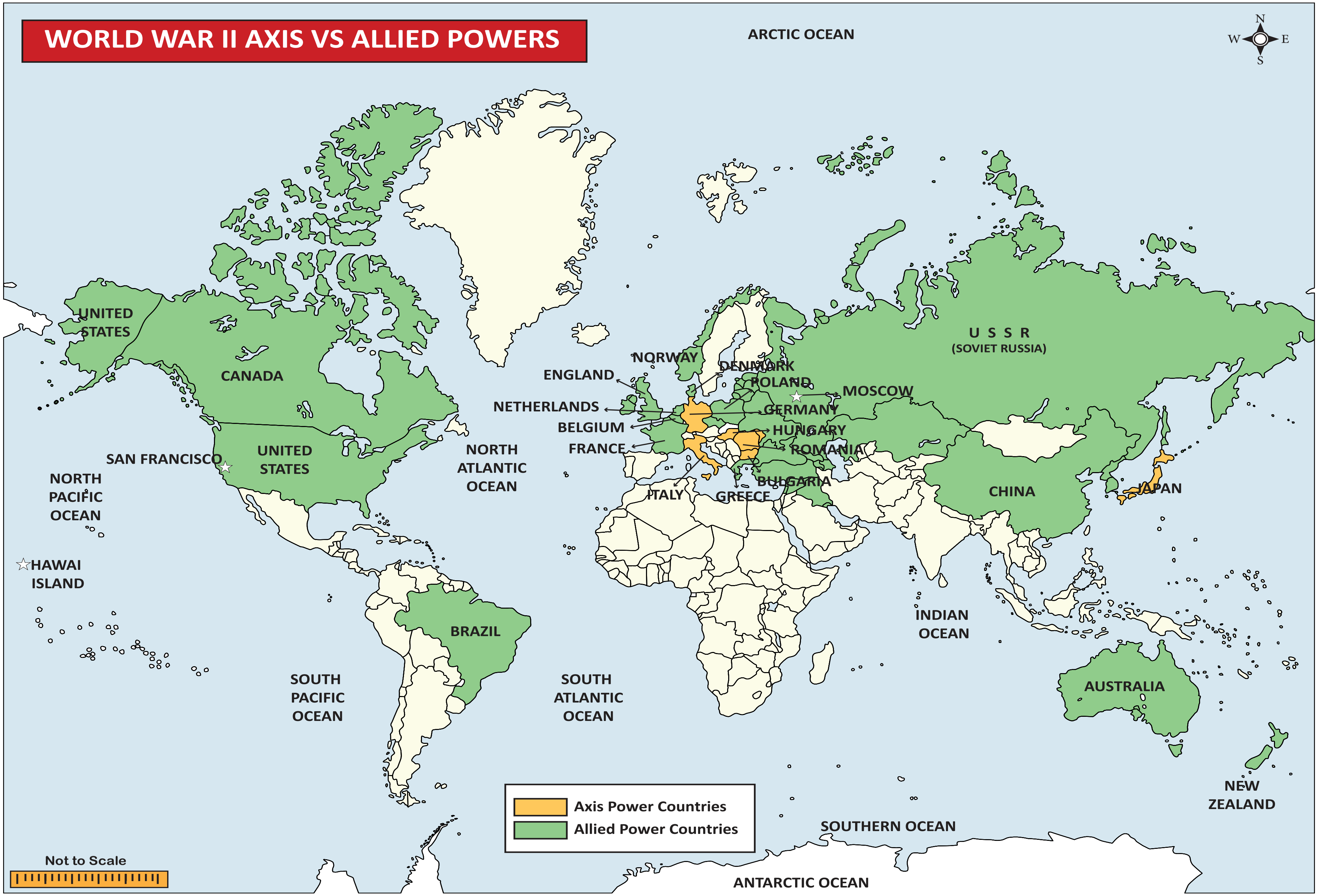

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Munich Pact

A further factor was that the western powers and the Soviet Union distrusted each other. In 1938, Prime Minister Chamberlain concluded the Munich Pact with Germany, which was a shameful acceptance of Germany's invasion of Czechoslovakia to annex German-speaking Sudetenland. In 1939 the Soviet Union independently concluded a non-aggression pact with Germany. The continued passivity of the Allies and the reluctance to start building up their armies were also contributory causes of the extended scale of World War II.

Though Hitler gave an assurance in the Munich Pact that Germany would not attack any other country, this was broken immediately. In 1939 he invaded Czechoslovakia. Poland was attacked next, and this was the final act which resulted in the declaration of war by Britain and France against Germany. In Britain, Prime Minister Chamberlain resigned in 1940 and Winston Churchill, who had always warned about Hitler and his military ambitions, became Prime Minister.

Munich Pact

(b) Course of World War II

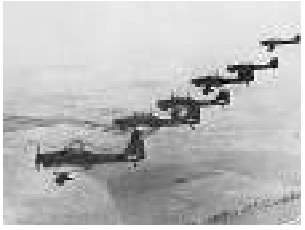
Nature of the War

World War II was fought on two distinct fronts - Europe and the Asia Pacific. In Europe, the war was fought by the Allies against Germany and Italy. In the Asia Pacific, the Allies fought Japan.

World War II was a modern war fought with heavy military equipment such as tanks, submarines, battleships, aircraft carriers, fighter planes and bomber planes. This involved a very large resource base, since all this equipment needed to be manufactured. There had to be raw materials, manufacturing capacity and technical inputs to improve the military hardware. This was an expensive and prolonged war of attrition.

Outbreak of War

Britain and France declared war on Germany in September 1939. In June 1940, Italy joined Germany, and in September 1940, Japan also joined the Axis powers.



Blitzkrieg

There was little action immediately after the declaration of war. Britain had already begun to build up its military capabilities, and all young men were conscripted for military duty. The first years of the War were a time of spectacular successes of the Germany army which occupied Denmark and Norway and later France. By 1941, all of mainland Europe till the Russian frontier was under the Axis powers. The German army followed a tactic of 'lightning strike' (Blitzkrieg) to storm into various countries and overrun them.

British Royal Navy

The British Royal Navy continued to be the most powerful among the European naval forces and ensured that a sea-borne invasion of Britain was not possible. However, Britain depended on large scale imports of food, raw materials and industrial goods by sea from its Empire and the US. To attack this, Germany developed a fleet of submarines which caused havoc, especially in the Atlantic Ocean area, by sinking a large number of civilian ships carrying supplies to Britain.

Important Events

Dunkirk – In May 1940 more than **300,000** British and French soldiers were

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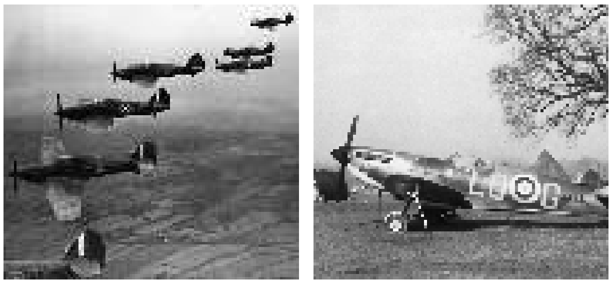
forced back to the beaches in Dunkirk. Britain would have found it difficult to regroup if so many of her soldiers had been lost at Dunkirk.

Battle of Britain– By July 1940, it was feared that the Germans were planning to invade Britain. Hitler wanted to force Britain to accept his proposals for peace by a prolonged air-borne bombing campaign. The German air force began to attack specific targets, especially the ports, airfields and industrial installations. In September 1940, London was bombed mercilessly, an action known as The Blitz. By October 1940, night bombing raids on London and other industrial cities began.

This campaign failed because with the aid of a newly developed and top secret device 'radar' for detecting aircraft while still at a distance, the fighter planes of the Royal Air Force were able to inflict severe losses on the German bombers. The raids stopped after October 1940. The Germans dropped their plans to invade Britain because of the failure of the air battle.



Royal Air Force

Lend Lease 1941–1945

President Roosevelt realized that the United States had to change its policy of isolation, but could not intervene directly in the War in Europe, because it was not politically feasible. So he started a programme of "Lend Lease" in March 1941. Arms, food, military equipment and other supplies were sent to Britain, disguised as a "loan", which would be returned after use. This augmented the resources of Britain to a great extent. Between 1941 and 1945, the total aid under Lend Lease amounted to $46.5 billion.

Invasion of Russia 1941-1942

In June 1941 the German army invaded Russia. The long-term objectives of this move were to seize prime land for settling Germans, to destroy the communist regime, and also exploit Russia's natural resources, especially oil. The German strategy of lightning strikes was initially successful and the army penetrated 1000 miles into Russian territory very soon. The German army then marched on Moscow. But ultimately, the resistance by the Soviet army, and the fierce Russian winter defeated the German army.

Battle of Stalingrad (17 July 1942 to 2 February 1943)

In August 1942, the Germans attacked Stalingrad.Stretching about 30 miles (50 km) along the banks of the Volga River, Stalingrad was a large industrial city producing armaments and tractors. Capturing the city would cut Soviet transport links with southern Russia, and Stalingrad would then enable the invading Germans to have access to the oil fields of the Caucasus. In addition, seizing the city that bore the name of Soviet leader Stalin would serve as a great personal and propaganda victory for Hitler. German war planners hoped to achieve that end with *Fall Blau* ("Operation Blue"). On June 28, 1942, operations began with significant German victories.

Russian people suffered not only from bad working and living conditions, but also from ill-treatment at German hands in the occupied areas. There were about 15 million civilian deaths during the war, and about 10 million members of the armed forces were killed. All together over one-tenth of Russia's population died. Yet the people remained loyal to the government, despite Hitler's hopes of an anti-Stalin revolution. They successfully defended the city of Stalingrad.

Battle of El Alamein 1942

In the early years of the War, German forces under General Rommel were remarkably

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successful in occupying North Africa rapidly, leaving the British with only Egypt. The Allied forces under General Montgomery counter-attacked and defeated the German and Italian forces at El Alamein in North Africa. The German army was chased across the desert, out of North Africa. This provided the base for the Allied forces to invade Italy.

Surrender of Italy 1943

Mussolini had been thrown out and the new government of Italy surrendered to the Allies in 1943. However, the Germans set Mussolini up in a puppet regime in the north. Mussolini was killed in April 1945, by Italian partisans.

End of Hitler

The Allied forces under the command of General Eisenhower invaded Normandy in France. Slowly, the German army was forced back. But the Germans fought back and the War continued for nearly another year, and finally ended in May 1945. Hitler committed suicide in April 1945.

From 1944, the Russian army began to attack Germany from the East and captured much of Eastern Europe and Poland. In 1945, they occupied parts of Berlin, so that Germany was divided into two sections after the War.

War in the Asia-Pacific Region

Japan had entertained visions of a glorious empire, very much on the same lines as Hitler. The Japanese army invaded Manchuria in 1931.Though China appealed to the League of Nations, this act of aggression did not attract the attention of the United States or Britain. In 1937, Japan invaded China, and seized Beijing (Peking, as it was then known) which had traditionally been the capital of China. The region around Shanghai was also captured, and Nanjing (Nanking), the capital was captured at the end of the year. The Japanese army indulged in the biggest slaughter ever known in history in Nanjing. Civilians were killed en masse for sport, and all females – from children to old women – were tortured and killed. Guangzhou (Canton) and many other parts of China were overrun. The Chinese army, under Chiang Kai-shek retreated to the west to the hilly country from where they continued to fight the Japanese.

Pearl Harbour 1941

On December 1941, Japan attacked American naval installations in Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, without warning. The idea was to cripple America's Pacific fleet so that Japan would not face any opposition in its offensive against South-east Asian countries. Many battleships and numerous fighter planes were destroyed. The United States declared war on Japan, with Britain and China also joining in. This brought together both the Asia Pacific and the European war into one common cause. Most importantly, it brought the United States with its enormous resources into the war as a part of the Allies.

Pearl Harbour attack

Japanese Aggression in South-east Asia

The Japanese had spectacular success in their plan to extend their empire throughout South-east Asia. Guam, the Philippines, Hong Kong, Singapore, Malaya, the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) and Burma, all fell to the Japanese.

Battle of Midway and Battle of Guadalcanal 1942

The US navy defeated the Japanese navy in the Battle of Midway, which turned the tide in favour of the Allies. The Battle of Guadalcanal in

Battle of Guadalcanal

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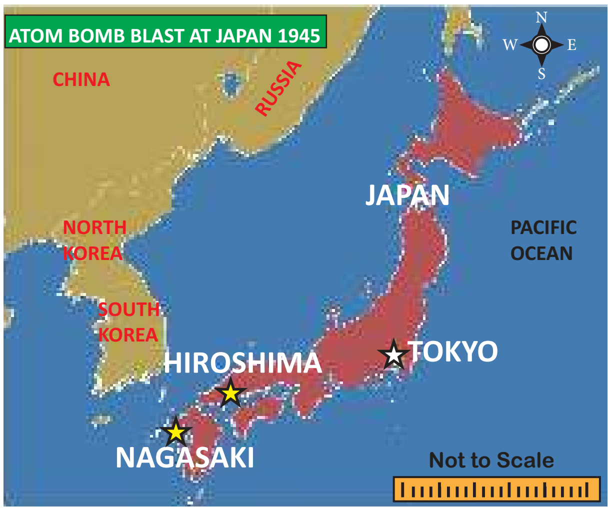
the Solomon Islands was a combined offensive involving the army and the navy, and lasted for several months. Both were crushing defeats for the Japanese.

After this, the American forces were able to re-take the Philippines. Gradually the Japanese were thrown out of most of their conquered territories. In 1944, the combined British and Indian armies were able to push back the Japanese who attempted to invade the north-east of India. Then, along with the Chinese, they pushed the Japanese out of Burma, and liberated Malaya and Singapore.

Hiroshima and Nagasaki,August 1945

As a top secret project, using the latest scientific advances, the US developed an atomic bomb immensely more powerful than conventional explosives. The Japanese generals refused to surrender and finally the US dropped an atomic bomb on Hiroshima. As the Japanese still refused to surrender, another atom bomb was dropped on Nagasaki. Japan ultimately announced surrender on 15 August 1945 and formally signed 2 September 1945 bringing an end to World War II.



(c) Effects of the War

New geo-political power alignment: World War II changed the world in fundamental ways. The world was polarized into two main blocs led by superpowers, one led by the United States with a pronounced anti-Communist ideology, and the other by Soviet Russia. Europe was divided into two: Communist and non-Communist.

Nuclear proliferation: The United States and the Soviet Union entered into a race to have more nuclear powered weapons. They built a large stockpile of such weapons. Defence spending sky-rocketed in many countries.

International agencies: Many international agencies, in particular the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund came into existence providing a forum for countries large and small.

Colonial powers were forced to give independence to former colonies in a process of decolonization. India was the first to achieve independence.

3.2 Holocaust and Its Fallout

After Hitler came to power, the Jews were persecuted in many ways. They were deprived of their civil rights, their properties were confiscated and many were confined to ghettos. Eventually, the Nazis came up with the notion of the Final Solution, which was to exterminate the Jews completely.

> The word 'holocaust' is used to describe the genocide of nearly six million Jews by the Germans during World War II. Annihilating the Jews was one of the main items on the political agenda of Hitler and the Nazis. Hitler was able to play on the anti-Jewish feelings (anti-Semitism) which were common in Germany and, in fact, throughout Europe. Jews were scattered all across Europe and many had become prominent in business, in performing arts and professional fields. Money-lending was a major business activity among Jews and this strengthened the prejudice against them. Shakespeare's play, *The Merchant of Venice* clearly depicts the dislike and distrust of Jews among the people.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights

In the aftermath of the Holocaust the UNO in its Charter, pledged to promote universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction to race, sex, language and religion. The UN efforts to protect human rights on a global basis resulted in the constitution of UN Commission on Human Rights. A committee constituted under its auspices was chaired by Eleanor Roosevelt wife of late President Franklin Roosevelt. The members of the Commission included Charles Malik of Lebanon, P.C. Chang of Nationalist China, John Humphrey of Canada, and Rene Cassin of France. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights was its important contribution. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights set forth fundamental human rights in 30 articles. The UN adopted this historic Charter on 10 December 1948. This day (10 December) is observed globally as Human Rights Day. Provisions of some ninety national constitutions since 1948, according to the Franklin and Eleanor Roosevelt Institute in New York, can be traced to this Declaration.

Birth of Israel

A major outcome of the Holocaust was the creation of the state of Israel as a homeland for the Jews. While this was historically the original home of the Jews during Roman times.

3.3 New International Order

By 1941 the United States and Britain began to give serious consideration to the need for international cooperation for achieving lasting peace among all nations. International economic and financial stability were also important objectives. All these would need international organizations with members of the various nations across the world working together for these common objectives. This ultimately resulted in the establishment of the United Nations, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, with many associated organizations which deal with basic issues of importance for all societies and countries.

United Nations

Symbol of UN

The first initiative for the United Nations came from the United States and Britain in 1941 when they issued a joint declaration known as the Atlantic Charter. This Declaration of the United Nations was accepted by all the 26 countries which were fighting against the Axis powers (Germany, Italy and Japan) on New Year's Day, 1942.The Charter of the United Nations was signed on June 26, 1945 by 51 nations. India which was not an independent country then also was a signatory to the Charter. Now the United Nations has 193 member states and each one - big or small - has an equal vote in the United Nations.

"We, the peoples of the United Nations, determined to save succeeding generations from scourge of war, which twice in our lifetime has brought untold sorrow to mankind, and to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women, and of nations large and small …". - from The Preamble to the United Nations

General Assembly and Security Council

UN Headquarters, New York

The United Nations functions almost like any government, through its principal organs which are similar to the legislative, executive and judicial wings of a state. In the General Assembly is the body in which each member state is represented. It meets once a year and issues of interest and points of conflict are discussed in the Assembly. The Security Council has

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fifteen members. Five countries - the United States, Britain, France, Russia and China - are permanent members, and there are ten temporary members who are elected in rotation. These two bodies function like a legislature. Each of the permanent members has the right to veto any decision by the other members of the Security Council. This right has often been used to block major decisions, especially by the superpowers, the US and Russia. Major issues and conflicts are discussed in the Security Council.

Administrative Structure

The executive wing of the United Nations is the UN Secretariat. It is headed by the Secretary General, who is elected by the General Assembly on the recommendation of the Security Council. The Secretary General, along with his cabinet and other officials, runs the United Nations. The International Court of Justice, headquartered at The Hague in Holland, is the judicial wing of the United Nations. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC), the fifth organ of the United Nations, is responsible for coordinating all the economic and social work of the United Nations. The regional Economic Commissions functioning for regional development across the various regions of the world (Asia Pacific, West Asia, Europe, Africa and Latin America) are organs of ECOSOC. They have been very successful, and have been headed by eminent economists like Gunnar Myrdal.

Other Important Organs of the UN

Associated organizations deal with areas of critical interest to the world at large like food, health and education, and culture. These are: Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), World Health Organisation (WHO), UNESCO (UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation). There are also special organizations funded voluntarily by member countries. The two best known among them are UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund) which promotes child health and welfare across the world, and the UNDP (United Nations Development Programme), which focuses on development.

Activities of the UN

Over the decades, the United Nations has expanded its activities in response to the changing problems facing the world. Thus, in the 1960s, decolonization was an important issue. Human rights, the problems of refugees, climate change, gender equality are all now within the ambit of the activities of the United Nations. A special mention must be made of the UN Peacekeeping force, which has acted in many areas of conflict all over the world. The Indian army has been an important part of the peacekeeping force and has been deployed in many parts of the world.

World Bank

The World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, referred to as the "Bretton Woods Twins", were both established in 1945 after the Bretton Woods Conference in 1944. Located in Washington D.C. in the United States, they have the same membership, since a country cannot be a member of the Bank without being a member of the Fund.

Bretton Woods Conference

The two main organs of the World Bank are the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) and the International Development Agency (IDA), Together they are often referred to as the World Bank. The main responsibility of the IBRD in the initial years was to fund the reconstruction activities under the Marshall Plan in the European countries devastated by the war. The agenda later expanded to promote economic development in poorer

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countries and the Bank lends money to various countries for developmental projects. A further area of interest is poverty alleviation, especially in the rural areas of developing countries. The International Development Agency (IDA) also lends money to governments for developmental activities. These loans are "soft" loans, and are given at very low rates of interest for a period of 50 years. The International Finance Corporation (IFC) mainly functions with private enterprises in developing countries.

In recent years the Bank is actively promoting the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals which aim at improving living standards, removing illiteracy, empowering women and improving maternal and child health, improving the environment and eradicating AIDS.

International Monetary Fund (IMF)

The International Monetary Fund was primarily the brainchild of Harry Dexter White and John Maynard Keynes, the famous economist. It was formally organized in 1945 with 29 member countries. It now has a membership of 189 countries. Its primary objective is to ensure financial stability and development across the world. The main agenda is to promote international monetary cooperation, expansion of international trade and exchange stability. The Fund lends money from its resources to countries facing balance of payments problems (because they are unable to pay for their imports). It however imposes stringent conditions on the borrowing nations to tighten their budgets, practice fiscal prudence and reduce their expenditure. This is often unpopular, especially among the developing countries which may have to cut down on various programmes which provide subsidies to the people.

The objectives of the IMF are: "to foster global monetary cooperation, secure financial stability, facilitate international trade, promote high employment and sustainable economic growth and reduce poverty around the world."

3.4 Post-War Welfare States in Europe

The term Welfare State refers to the concept that the government is responsible for the social and economic welfare of the people, thus expanding the role of the state beyond providing defence and maintaining law and order.

In 1942, the Report commonly known as the Beveridge Report was published in the United Kingdom which proposed a series of measures which the government should adopt to provide citizens with adequate income, health care, education, housing and employment to overcome poverty and disease which were the major impediments to general welfare.

After the War, the Labour party was voted into power in Britain. It promised to undertake steps to look after the people "from the cradle to the grave". Legislation was enacted to provide comprehensive free health coverage to the citizens through the National Health Service and monetary benefits like old page pensions and unemployment benefits, childcare services and family welfare services. These are in addition to universal, free school education to all children.

The benefits can either be achieved through cash transfers, like old age pensions and unemployment compensation, or through free services. In addition, these countries also try to minimize economic disparities through progressive taxation by taxing the higher income groups at relatively high rates.

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SUMMARY

- The War lasted from 1939 till 1945 and was fought in almost every part of the world, in Europe, Africa and the Asia Pacific. The Allies, initially Britain and France, and subsequently the USSR (Russia) and the United States, fought against the Axis powers - Germany, Italy and Japan.
- Initially both the German army in Europe and Japan in the East were very successful. However, after the United States with its enormous resources also joined the Allies, both Germany and Japan were defeated after many prolonged fighting.
- The post-War world saw the rise of two superpowers, namely the United States and the USSR. Both countries were in an arms race, especially to build their nuclear weapons.

GLOSSARY

devastation/ havoc	total destruction	பேரழிவு
belligerent	one eager to fight / aggressive	போர் நாட்டம்
resurgent	rising again	மீண்டெழுகிற
reparations	compensation exacted from a defeated nation by the victors	இழப்பீடுகள்
armaments	weapons	போர்த்தளவாடங்கள்
conscripted	compulsory military service	கட்டாய இராணுவ சேவைக்கு அழைக்கப்பட்ட
slaughter	kill a large number of people indiscriminately	வதைத்துக் கொல்லுதல்
proliferation	a rapid increase	பல்கிப் பெருகுதல்
ghettos	slums	குடிசைத்தொகுதி
veto	a vote that blocks a decision / negative vote	மறுப்பாணை / எதிர்வாக்கு
ambit	range	வரம்பு / எல்லை
scourge	eternal suffering	மீளாத்துயரம்
stringent	tough	கடுமையான

EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. When did the Japanese formally sign of their surrender?

   a) 2 September, 1945

   b) 2 October, 1945

   c) 15 August, 1945

   d) 12 October, 1945

2. Who initiated the formation of League of Nations?

   a) Roosevelt

   b) Chamberlain

   c) Woodrow Wilson

   d) Baldwin

3. Where was the Japanese Navy defeated by the US Navy?

   a) Battle of Guadalcanal

   b) Battle of Midway

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c) Battle of Leningrad

d) Battle of El Alamein

4. Where did the US drop its first atomic bomb?

a) Kavashaki

b) Tokyo

c) Hiroshima

d) Nagasaki

5. Who were mainly persecuted by Hitler?

a) Russians

b) Arabs

c) Turks

d) Jews

6. Which Prime Minister of England who signed the Munich Pact with Germany ?

a) Chamberlain

b) Winston Churchill

c) Lloyd George

d) Stanley Baldwin

7. When was the Charter of the UN signed?

a) June 26, 1942

b) June 26, 1945

c) January 1, 1942

d) January 1, 1945

II Fill in the blanks

1. Hitler attacked ________ which was a demilitarised zone.

2. The alliance between Italy, Germany and Japan is known as ________ .

3. Britain Prime Minister ________ resigned in 1940.

4. ________ is a device used to find out the enemy aircraft from a distance.

III Choose the correct statement

1. **Assertion**: President Roosevelt realised that the United States had to change its policy of isolation.
Reason: He started a programme of Lend Lease in 1941.
a) Both A and R are correct
b) A is right but R is not the correct reason
c) Both A and R are wrong
d) R is right but it has no relevance to A

IV Match the Following

1.	Blitzkrieg	-	Stalingrad
2.	Royal Navy	-	Solomon Island
3.	Volga	-	Britain
4.	Guadalcanal	-	lightning strike

V Answer the questions briefly

1. Who were the three prominent dictators of the post World War I ?

2. How did Hitler get the support from the people of Germany?

3. Describe the Pearl Harbour incident.

4. What do you know of Beveridge Report?.

5. Name the Bretton Woods Twins.

6. What are the objectives of IMF?

VI Answer in detail

1. Analyse the effects of the World War II.

2. Assess the structure and the activities of the UN.

VII Students Activity

1. Marking the Allies and Axis countries, as well as important battlefields of World War II in a world map.

VIII Map Work

Mark the following on the world map.

1. Axis Power Countries

2. Allied Power Countries

3. Hiroshima, Nagasaki, Hawai Island, Moscow, San Fransico

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ICT CORNER

World War II

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on '**map**' to see the events happened in the location
- Select any year from the bottom time line **(Ex.1939)** and select the '**box**' to learn more about the World War II events.

Website URL:

https://www.abmc.gov/sites/default/files/interactive/interactive_files/WW2/index.html

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Unit - 4

The World After World War II

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- Communist Revolution in China
- Cold War and the Non-Aligned Movement
- Korean War and the Cuban Missile Crisis
- Arab–Israeli Wars and Vietnam War
- European Economic Community and European Union
- Fall of Berlin Wall and the End of Cold War Era

Introduction

In the aftermath of Second World War a new era began. It was the beginning of the decline of European colonial empires and the independence of colonies in Asia and Africa. If the effects of World War I led to the communist revolution of Russia, the Second World War played a big part in the communist revolution in China. The emergence of the US and the USSR as super powers resulted in the division of the world into two antagonistic blocs. A cold war situation triggered deadly conflicts in Korea, Cuba, Vietnam and West Asia.

Under the Marshall Plan for reconstruction of the war-ravaged Europe, the US won the trust of the great powers in Europe. Soviet Russia, by demonstrating solidarity with the liberation struggles of countries in Asia and Africa, earned the goodwill of the latter.

The Non-Aligned Movement played a limited role in containing the conflict between the two power blocs. In a bid to wriggle out of US control, European countries started the European movement in the form of Council of Europe. This developed into the European Common Market and finally into what is today the European Union. The Cold War period ended with the fall of Berlin Wall.

4.1 Chinese Revolution

(a) China in the Pre-War Period

In its long history, Chinese civilization was more advanced than that of Europe. But by the end of the nineteenth century, its progress had halted. The Manchus, the ruling dynasty, had governed China since about 1650. The entire administration system was in the hands of a bureaucracy of scholar-officials called mandarins who came from the landed gentry. The mass of peasant population was poverty-stricken, and suffered from high rents, high taxes, and shortage of land. There was very little industry, though some railways and engineering works had been built.

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Discontent with the political and economic system resulted in a number of peasant uprisings. The Taiping Rebellion (1850–64) was a major rebellion. In the two opium wars of 1832 and 1848, China was defeated and was compelled to open its ports to western powers. The opening of China to western imperialism led to economic exploitation and the impoverishment of the Chinese people.

The European presence produced a profound hatred of foreigners. This combined with military defeat, led to more pressing demands for reforms from the Western-educated intellectuals. In 1898, the young Emperor, initiated a series of reforms known as the Hundred Days of Reform. But these reforms aroused tremendous opposition from the powerful conservatives and the Dowager-Empress Tzú Hsi. She imprisoned the Emperor and reversed the reforms.

(b) The Chinese Revolution 1911

The disintegration of the Manchu dynasty began with the death of the Dowager-Empress in 1908. The new emperor was two-years old and the provincial governors began to assert their independence. In October 1911 the local army mutinied and the revolt spread. Provincial governors removed the Manchu garrisons and proclaimed their independence. Already there were a few middle-class leaders. Dr. Sun Yat-sen was one among them. On hearing the news of the rising in a newspaper in the United States Sun Yat-sen arrived in Shanghai and was immediately elected provisional president of the new Chinese Republic.

Dr. Sun Yat-sen (1866–1925)

Born in a poor family near Canton, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, the father of modern china was educated in a mission school and became a Christian. He was then trained as a doctor of medicine in Hong Kong. Evincing interest in politics he took part in a rising against the Manchus in 1895. In 1905 he founded in Tokyo the political party which in 1912 became the Kuomintang or the National People's Party. Dr. Sun Yat-sen's three principles were Nationalism, Democracy, and People's livelihood with Socialism as the ultimate object.

(c) Yuan Shih-kai and After

The unity of China under Yuan Shih-kai lasted for four years. On his death in 1916 a new President was appointed for the next twelve years but the government was central only in name.

Yuan Shih-kai

(d) Communist Party of China

With the Revolution and the breakup of the old society, Confucian thought was generally side-lined and after the Russian Revolution of 1917, the ideas of Marx and Lenin became popular among intellectuals. In 1918 a Society for the Study of Marxism was formed in Peking University. Among the students who attended was **Mao Tse-tung.**

Mao Tse-tung (1893–1976)

Mao was born in Hunan in south-east China. His father was a wealthy peasant, and a firm supporter of the Manchus. Mao, who was very fond of reading, soon showed his ability and entered the Junior College at Changsha. This was the year (1911) when the Revolution had broken out in China. Mao joined the revolutionary army but soon left and enrolled in the Teachers' Training College in Changsha.In the following year Mao began his full-fledged political activities of Hunan and emerged as a staunch Communist.

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Kuomintang and Chiang Kai Shek

After the death of Sun Yat Sen the leader of the Kuomintang was Chiang Kai-shek. While the Communist Party was under Mao Tse Tung and Chou En Lai. As an avowed critic of Communists, Chiang removed all of them from important positions in the party. The communists increased their influence among the workers and peasants and obtained recruits for their army. The Kuomintang represented the interests of the landlords and capitalists. In 1928 he was successful in capturing Peking. Once again there was a central government in China.

Chiang Kai-shek

Chou En Lai

Mao as Organizer of Peasants

Mao had understood that the Kuomintang grip on the towns was very strong. So he concentrated his energies on organizing the peasantry. A few hundred Communists led by Mao retreated into the wild mountains. Here they stayed for the next seven years. As the army of Mao was gradually growing, the Kuomintang was unable to penetrate the mountains. The campaign against the communists was distracted as Chiang Kai-shek had to deal with the constant threat from Japan and also the attacks from war lords.

The Long March 1934

As Chiang Kai-shek had built a circle of fortified posts around the communist positions, Mao wanted to move out of Hunan for safer territory. By 1933 Mao had gained full control of the Chinese Communist party. In 1934, the Communist army of about 100,000 set out on the Long March. This march has become legendary. Of the 100000 who set out, only 20,000 finally reached northern Sheni late in 1935, after crossing nearly 6000 miles. They were soon joined by other communist armies. By 1937 Mao had become the leader of over 10 million people.

Mao's Long March

Japanese Aggression

Japan continued to occupy north Chinese provinces while developing Manchuria as a military base. Mao believed that Chiang Kai-shek was necessary for some time to hold together Kuomintang to fight the Japanese. As a consequence of this pragmatic policy, the attacks on the communists gradually stopped.

Communist Victory

With the surrender of the Japanese (1945), both the Kuomintang and the communists sought to occupy the Japanese areas. In this race the Kuomintang was successful. The cities and railways soon fell into their hands. Even the area around Peking was soon controlled by Chiang Kai-shek's forces, largely because of the military aid given by the USA.

With the massive support provided by the USA Kuomintang government controlled the administration, ports and communication system. But the soldiers, mainly drawn from the peasants, were disillusioned and discontented. Mao was keen on obtaining the support of the middle class. So he declared that what the communists wanted was the rule of the people, not the dictatorship of the proletariat; the end of exploitation, not absolute equality.

National People's Congress

In September 1949, before fighting had ended in the south of China, the people's Political Consultative Conference met in Peking. Consisting of over 650 delegates from

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the Communist Party and other left-wing organizations, the conference elected the Central Governing Council with Mao as its Chairman.

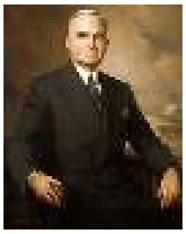
The establishment of the People's Republic of China under the leadership of Mao Tse Tung was a world-shaking event. There were now two mighty Communist powers in the world —the Soviet Union and People's Republic of China.

Denial of UNO Membership

The United-States refused to recognize the People's Republic of China for more than two decades.

4.2 Cold War: Rivalry between the US and the Soviet Union

1. Truman's Policy of Containment of Communism



Truman

In 1948 the Soviets had established socialist governments in the countries of eastern Europe that had been liberated from the Nazis by the Soviet Army. Truman, the president of USA, pursued a policy of containment of communism. The Soviets were however determined not only to maintain control of eastern Europe, but also keen on spreading Communism world-wide.

Cold War: The rivalry that developed after World War II between the US and the USSR and their respective allies created tension which is referred to as Cold War. They did not take recourse to weapons. Instead they waged war on political, economic and ideological fronts.

2. Marshall Plan

The US conceived the Marshall Plan to bring the countries in western Europe under its influence. The plan sought to help the countries of Europe with American dollars to facilitate their early recovery from the destruction caused by the Second World War.

Marshall

The United States was much concerned that poverty, unemployment, and dislocation caused by the post-World War II period were increasing the appeal of communist parties in western Europe. The Secretary of State, George C. Marshall, advanced the idea of a European self-help programme to be financed by the United States. Sixteen nations, became part of this programme. Administrative and technical assistance was offered through the Economic Cooperation Administration (ECA) of the United States. Marshall Plan funding ended in 1951.

4.3 Formation of Military Alliances

(a) NATO

The United States and its European allies formed the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) to resist Soviet aggression in Europe (1949). It was an inter-state military alliance between the countries of North America and Europe. The major member countries included Canada, Belgium, Denmark, France, Iceland, Italy, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal and the United Kingdom. Later Greece and Turkey joined the organization (1952). Germany joined the NATO in 1955. The chief objective of NATO was the peace and security in the North Atlantic region.

(b) SEATO or Manila Pact (1954)

The Southeast Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) was organized for the collective security of countries in Southeast Asia. Following the signing of the Manila Pact (1954) by the US, France, England, New Zealand, Australia, the Philippines, Thailand and Pakistan. Member countries of SEATO were committed to prevent

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communism from gaining ground in the region. Unlike the NATO alliance, SEATO had no joint commands with standing forces.

(c) Warsaw Pact

As a counter to the NATO, Soviet Union organized the Soviet-bloc countries for a united military action, under the Warsaw Pact. In December 1954, a conference of eight European nations namely, Albania, Bulgaria, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Poland, Romania and Russia took place in Moscow. They concluded the treaty on May 14, 1955. This is known as the Warsaw pact. A joint command of armed forces of the member countries with its headquarters in Moscow was setup. The Warsaw Pact was dissolved in 1991 following the break-up of USSR.

(d) CENTO or the Baghdad Pact

In 1955 Turkey, Iraq, Great Britain, Pakistan and Iran signed a pact known as Baghdad Pact. In 1958 the United States joined the organisation and thereafter it came to be known as the Central Treaty Organization. This treaty was open to any Arab nation desiring peace and security in the region. CENTO was dissolved in 1979.

4.4 Korean War

The Korean War made the Cold War really hot. Since Korea was partitioned as North and South (1945), each side sought to win legitimacy by unifying the country. The President of North Korea Kim II (People's Republic of Korea) decided to act before his southern rival, Syngman Rhee (the Republic of Korea), got the chance. He launched an attack in June 1950, with the tacit support of Stalin. Both Kim and Stalin did not expect the US to intervene. The war lasted for three years. The human cost was enormous. But the Korean people gained nothing.

Third World Countries

The capitalist countries led by the U.S. were politically designated as the First World, while the communist states led by the Soviet Union came to be known as the Second world. States outside these two were called Third World.

4.5 Non-Aligned Movement

The Non-Alignment Movement (NAM) emerged in the wake of decolonization that followed World War II. At the Bandung (a city in Indonesia) conference (1955), the newly independent countries of Asia and Africa gave a call for abstaining from allying with any of the two Super Powers. It also pledged to fight all forms of colonialism and imperialism.

The NAM held its first conference at Belgrade in 1961 under the leadership of Tito (Yugoslavia), Nasser (Egypt), Nehru (India), Nkrumah (Ghana) and Sukarno (Indonesia). The basic principles of non-alignment, as listed in the statement issued at the Belgrade (a Serbian city, then part of Yugoslavia) Conference, were: peaceful co-existence, commitment to peace and security, no military alliance with any super power, no permission for any super power to build its military base in its territories. With the collapse of Soviet Union, the idea of non-alignment lost relevance.

4.6 The Cuban Revolution

Fidel Castro

The United States had its satellite states in Central America (Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, Panama and Guatemala), the Caribbean (Cuba, the Dominion Republic and Haiti) and east Asia (the Philippines, South Korea, South Vietnam and Thailand). These states were

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governed by ruling groups made up of military personnel, landed gentry and occasionally of local capitalists.

After Castro took power, the US-owned oil refineries on the island refused to process Russian oil. Castro nationalized them. The US retaliated by ending the arrangement by which it bought the bulk of Cuba's sugar. Castro nationalized the US-owned sugar companies. and ended the US monopolies in electricity and telephones. All these gravely threatened American economic interests.

Cuban Missile Crisis

In April 1961, while landing an army of Cuban exiles on the island of Bay of Pigs, the US bombed Cuban airfields with the objective of overthrowing Castro's regime. US warships surrounded Cuba. The Kennedy government had received intelligence that the USSR was secretly installing nuclear missiles in Cuba. Finally, the Soviet President Khrushchev agreed to withdraw the missiles and thus the Missile Crisis was defused.

Eventually the two sides reached an agreement. The Soviet Union removed the missiles from Cuba on an understanding that the US would never invade Cuba again.

4.7 Arab-Israeli War

The Treaty of Versailles (1919) had provided for mandates in Turkish Arab Empire. France was given the mandate for Syria and Lebanon, and Britain for Iraq, Palestine and Jordan. This arrangement upset the Arabs since they had expected independence at the end of World War I. Britain's promise to Zionist leaders that it would allocate one of the Arab lands, Palestine, to Jewish settlers from Europe further embittered the Arabs. There was growing Arab antagonism towards Zionist settlers, as they bought land from rich Arabs and evicted the local peasant families who had been cultivating it for centuries.

At the end of October 1945, the Jewish underground organizations like Irgun Zvai Leumi (Zionist Para-military Organization) and the Stern Gang (Zionist Terrorist Organization) began to launch terror attacks on a large scale. Railways, bridges, airfields and government offices were blown up. The British government, presented the dispute to the UN for a decision.

Succumbing to the pressure of great powers, the UN resolved to partition the British mandate of Palestine into a Jewish state and an Arab state (29 November 1947). Clashes broke out almost immediately between Jews and Arabs in Palestine.

Zionist Movement: In Palestine, the ancient home of Jews, only a few thousand Jews were living in 1900. Some 15 million were scattered around Europe and North America. (This is referred to as the Diaspora.) In 1896 Thodore Herzel, a Viennese journalist, published a pamphlet called *The Jewish State* in which he called for the creation of a Jewish national home. Next year (1897) the World Zionist Organisation was founded.

The Israelis, won control of the main road to Jerusalem and successfully repulsed repeated Arab attacks. As a result of separate armistice agreements (1947 Feb-June) between Israel and each of the Arab states, a temporary frontier was fixed between Israel and its neighbours. In Israel, the war is remembered as its War of Independence. In the Arab world, it is treated as the Nakbah ("Catastrophe") as a large number of Arabs became refugees. Israel was admitted into the UN immediately much against the wishes of Arabs.

Suez Canal Crisis (1956)

In Egypt, in a coup in 1952, Colonel Nasser became its President. In 1956 he nationalized the Suez Canal, which undermined British interests. With the failure of diplomacy, Britain and France decided to use force. Israel saw this as an opportunity to open the Gulf of Aqaba to Israeli shipping and put a stop to Egyptian border raids. On 29 October Israeli forces invaded Egypt. Britain used this opportunity to

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demand that its troops be allowed to occupy the canal zone to protect the canal. Egypt refused and on 31 October Britain and France bombed Egyptian airfields and other installations as well as the Suez Canal area. However, under pressure of world opinion, Britain and France ended hostilities on 6 November. India represented by Nehru played a crucial role in resolving the crisis.

Suez Canal crisis

Arab–Israeli War 1967

Ever since the formation of the Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO), Israel came to be attacked frequently by Palestinian guerrilla groups based in Syria, Lebanon and Jordan. Israeli resorted to violent reprisals. In November 1966 an Israeli strike on the village of Al-Samū in the Jordanian West Bank, left 18 dead and 54 wounded. Israel's air battle with Syria in April 1967 ended in the shooting down six Syrian MiG fighter jets. In his bid to demonstrate Egypt's support for Syria Nasser mobilized Egyptian forces in the Sinai, seeking the removal of UN emergency forces stationed there on May 18. On May 22 he closed the Gulf of Aqaba to Israeli shipping. King Hussein of Jordan signed a mutual defence pact with Egypt. Accordingly, it was decided to place Jordanian forces under Egyptian command. Soon, Iraq too joined the alliance.

Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO)- It is an umbrella political organization representing the world's Palestinians – all Arabs and their descendants who lived in mandated Palestine before the creation of the State of Israel in 1948. It was formed in 1964 to federate various Palestinian groups that previously had operated as clandestine resistance movements. Yasser Arafat was its most prominent leader.

Israel's Offensive

Following the mobilization of Arab states by Nasser, on June 5, Israel staged a sudden pre-emptive air strike that destroyed more than 90 percent of Egypt's air force on the tarmac. A similar air assault incapacitated the Syrian air force. Within three days the Israelis had achieved an overwhelming victory on the ground, capturing the Gaza Strip and all of the Sinai Peninsula up to the east bank of the Suez Canal.

Yasser Arafat (1924–2004)

In 1969, Yasser Arafat became chairman of the PLO's executive committee a position he held until his death in 2004. Yasser Arafat was appointed commander-in-chief of the all Palestinian Arab guerilla forces in September 1970. Wearing a disguised pistol and carrying an olive branch and dressed in a military uniform, his appearance raised world awareness of the Palestinian cause. Arafat was elected by the central council of the PLO as the first president of the state of Palestine on April 2, 1989.

Arab–Israeli War 1973

Anwar Sadat and Hafez al-Assad

Egypt and Syria under Presidents Anwar Sadat and Hafez al-Assad respectively concluded a secret agreement in January 1973 to bring their armies under one command. Sadat offered the Israelis a peace deal, if they withdrew from Sinai. Israel rejected the offer. Egypt and Syria launched a sudden and surprise attack on the Yom Kippur

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religious holiday (6 October 1973). Though Israel suffered heavy casualties it finally pushed back the Arab forces. Arabs gained nothing out of this war too. By way of mediation the USsucceeded in asserting its hegemony over the region and its oil.

4.8 Vietnam War

By the end of Second World War Viet Minh controlled the northern half of Vietnam. Viet Minh formed a government led by Ho Chi Minh in Hanoi. This Viet Minh government quickly occupied the southern half of Vietnam. However, the Allied Powers decided at Potsdam that the British in the south and the Chinese in the north should defend Indo-China from the Japanese. But Ho Chi Minh had established his control very firmly and so, early in 1946, the British and Chinese troops had to withdraw, leaving the French and Viet Minh to confront each other. In March the two governments (French and Viet Minh) reached an agreement by which North Vietnam was to be a free state, within an Indo-Chinese Federation.

In 1949 the French attempted to secure the support of the population by declaring Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia independent within the French Union, retaining only foreign affairs and defence under French control.

While the French were receiving considerable financial aid from America, the Viet Minh were helped by the new Chinese communist government. The French troops were eventually defeated. The Geneva Conference (1954) that met on Korea and Indo China decided that Vietnam was to be an independent state but temporarily divided; the Viet Minh to control the north and Bao Dai to head the government the south. Cambodia and Laos were to be independent.

With a population of 16 million North Vietnam became a Communist state with Ho Chi Minh as President. South Vietnam, approximately of the same size and population, was ruled by Ngo Dinh Diem.

The government's survival in South Vietnam depended on increasing amounts of US support. In 1965 marines landed at Danang naval base, and there were 33,500 US troops in the country within a month. The number increased and there were 210,000 by the end of year. The US bombed both North and South in the hope that it could force the liberation forces to abandon the struggle. The fighters of North Vietnam, trained in guerilla warfare, had grown out of spontaneous struggles against a repressive regime. They sustained their resistance without bowing to the US. The American troops also used bacteriological weapons. Incendiary bombs such as napalm and Agent Orange (to defoliate the forest cover) were used. Vast areas of Vietnam were devastated and hundreds of thousands of people killed. The American forces too suffered heavy casualties.

American Bombing of North Vietnam

Early in 1975, the war took a decisive turn. The armies of North Vietnam and of the National Liberation Front of South Vietnam swept across the country routing the American supported troops of South Vietnam. By 30 April 1975, all the American troops had withdrawn and the capital of South Vietnam, Saigon, was liberated. North and South Vietnam were formally united as one country in 1976. The city of Saigon was renamed as Ho Chi-Minh City after the great leader of the Vietnamese people.

Ho Chin Minh City (Saigon)

The emergence of Vietnam as a united and independent

nation was an historic event. A small country had succeeded in winning independence and unification in the face of the armed opposition of the greatest power in the world. The help given to Vietnam by the socialist countries, the political support extended by a large number of Asian and African countries, and the solidarity expressed by the peoples in all parts of the world, helped in achieving this.

4.9 Towards European Union

(a) Council of Europe

One of the momentous decisions taken in the post-War II era was to integrate the states of Western Europe. In doing so the Europeans wanted (1) to prevent further European wars by ending the rivalry between France and Germany. (2) to create a united Europe to resist any threat from Soviet Russia. (3) to form a third force in the world to counter-balance the strength of the US and USSR. (4) to make full use of the economic and military resources of Europe by organizing them on a continental scale. In May 1949 ten countries met in London and signed to form a Council of Europe. The Council of Europe with headquarters at Strasbourg was established with a committee of foreign ministers of member countries and a Consultative Assembly, drawn from the parliaments of foreign countries.

(b) European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC)

The European Defence Community (EDC) and the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) were established. Six countries (France, West Germany, Italy, Belgium, Holland and Luxemburg belonging to ECSC signed the treaty of Rome which established the European Economic Community (EEC) or the European Common Market, with headquarters at Brussels.

(c) European Economic Community (EEC)

The EEC eliminated barriers to the movement of goods, services, capital, and labour. It also prohibited public policies or private agreements that restricted market competition. A common agricultural policy (CAP) and a common external trade policy were evolved. European Common market was a remarkable success.

(d) Single European Act (SEA)

The Single European Act came into force on July 1, 1987. It significantly expanded the EEC's scope giving the meetings of the EPC a legal basis. It also called for more intensive coordination of foreign policy among member countries. According to the SEA, each member was given multiple votes, depending on the country's population. Approval of legislation required roughly two-thirds of the votes of all members.

(e) European Union (EU)

The Maastricht (Netherlands) Treaty signed on February 7, 1992, created the European Union. The monetary policy and a common currency (euro) to replace national currencies managed by common monetary institutions were subsequently planned and implemented. Today the European Union has 28 member states, and functions from its headquarters at Brussels, Belgium.

4.10 Fall of Berlin Wall and End of Cold War Era

1BRYH

The division of Germany into West (Federal Republic of Germany) and East (German Democratic Republic) led to glaring differences in living standards. West Berlin's economy became prosperous thanks to the support received from the West under the Marshall Plan. In contrast the USSR had little interest in developing the economy of East Berlin. Further, people in East Berlin suffered from lack of democracy and freedom. Therefore, people of East Berlin moved to West Berlin in large numbers. In West Berlin, on the other hand, there was a fear that the Soviets could use military force to take West Berlin. In this context, East Germany began to construct

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a wall in 1961 which virtually cut off West Berlin from East Berlin and the surrounding East German areas. It was heavily guarded with watch towers and other lethal impediments to stop people from the East. In the late 1980s, as USSR's hold over Eastern European countries was weakening, a mass of people assembled on 9 November 1989 on both sides of the wall and began to demolish it. Germany was officially reunited on 3 October 1990. The Berlin Wall was more than just a physical barrier. It was a symbolic boundary between communism and capitalism. With the fall of the Berlin Wall, followed by the collapse of the Soviet Union, the Cold War era came to an end.

Demolition of Berlin wall

Helmut Kohl, Chancellor of West Germany from 1982 to 1990, and played a crucial role in integrating East Germany into West Germany in 1990. He thus became the first chancellor of a unified Germany after forty five years of division. With French president Mitterand, Kohl was the architect of the Maastricht Treaty, which established the European Union (EU) and the euro currency.

Disintegration of the Soviet Union

In the 1970s and early 1980s the Soviet Union continued to retain a strong and dominant position in international politics. However, its economy was suffering, and was unable to match the productive capacity of the first world. In 1985, Mikhail Gorbachev took over as head of the USSR. Gorbachev spoke about the need for openness (Glasnost) and reform (perestroika). But his commitment to reform, apart from opposition within the ruling communist party, did not match the resources available to USSR. In the middle of the 1980s about one third of the total GDP was going to the military. In order to maintain a parity with the US, in the context of President Reagan's Star Wars programme, it became necessary for the Soviet Union to allocate more funds to the military. The increase in military budget further strained the Soviet economy.

The year 1988 saw the first mass protests –first in Armenia, and then in the Baltic States. Earlier Soviet regimes had used severe repression to quell such uprisings. Gorbachev could not take recourse to such brutal measures. The Chernobyl Disaster, a major accident in a nuclear plant in Ukraine, in 1986, was another blow. Gorbachev made moves to stabilise his position by reliance on conservative forces in 1989 and 1991. But on each occasion he was interrupted by massive miners' strike which came close to cripple the country's energy supplies.

The East European communist states, under the Soviet umbrella, were also in a deep economic and social crisis. Gorbachev's decision to loosen the Soviet control on the countries of Eastern Europe created an independent, democratic momentum. A series of workers' strikes undermined the communist regimes first in Poland and then in Hungary. A wave of demonstrations that swept East Germany led to demolition of the Berlin Wall in 1989.

Perestroika ('restructuring') refers to the programme introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev in the late 1980s to restructure Soviet economic and political system. Along with the policy of 'Glasnost' ('openness), Perestroika was intended to energize Soviet economy which was lagging behind the developed countries of the capitalist world.

Glasnost ('openness') was a policy of ideologically openness introduced by Mikhail Gorbachev along with Perestroika in the 1980s. Under Glasnost there was more openness, writers who had been censored earlier were rehabilitated, and there was space for criticism of politics and government.

Yeltsin was first an ally of Gorbachev. However, as Mayor of Moscow, Yeltsin won great popularity as a champion of political and economic freedom. With Gorbachev's introduction of democratic elections for the Soviet parliament, Yeltsin was returned to power with overwhelming support of a Moscow constituency in 1989. The following year he was elected President of Russia over Gorbachev's objections. President Yeltsin advocated greater autonomy of the Russian Republic, with executive presidential system that would allow him to govern independently of parliament.

Yeltsin

Gorbachev

Subsequent to it, regimes in Czechoslovakia, followed by Bulgaria, fell. An attempt by Romania's Nicolae Ceaușescu to resist the wave of change by shooting down demonstrators ended in his execution by a firing squad (December 1989) under the command of his own generals. The televised images of the shooting and the fall of the Berlin Wall galvanized the process of the breaking up of the communist world. In six months the political map of half of Europe had been redrawn.

Gorbachev made a last attempt to take a hard line against the disruptionist only to be challenged by a second great miners' strike in 1991and huge demonstrations in Moscow. In response, conservative forces in his government attempted to take a hard line without Gorbachev. They used troops in Moscow to stage a coup, and held Gorbachev under house arrest. But other military units refused to back them and as a result power fell into the hands of Boris Yeltsin, a reformer backed by the West.

In the meantime, three Baltic States had formally left the Soviet Union. They were admitted to the U.N. as independent countries: Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. In November 1991 eleven republics (Ukraine, Georgia, Belarus, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan) announced secession from the Soviet Union. Instead, they declared they would establish a Commonwealth of Independent States. On 25 December Gorbachev announced his resignation. For six days the Soviet Union continued to exist only in name and at midnight on 31 December 1991, it was formally dissolved. The USSR was no more.

SUMMARY

- The history of China becoming a Communist country in the aftermath of Second War is narrated with the portrayal of developments there after the revolution of 1911.
- Rivalry between the US and the USSR, leading to the division of world into two military blocs and the significance of NATO and Warsaw Pact, are highlighted.
- Cold War developments are illustrated with cases of Korean War, Cuban Missile Crisis, Arab-Israeli Wars and Vietnam War.
- Launch of Non-Alignment Movement, representing the view-points of Third World countries, is described.
- Establishment of Council of Europe to act independently of the influence of USA that later developed into European Common Market and into European Union today is explained.

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GLOSSARY

antagonistic	acting against or indicating	பகையுணர்வு கொண்ட
wriggle out	to avoid doing something	நழுவுதல்
ascension	the act of rising to an important position or a higher level, a movement upward	வளர்ச்சி, உயர்வு
disillusioned	disappointed on finding out something is not as good as hoped	அதிருப்தி
abstaining	restrain oneself from doing something	விலகியிருத்தல், ஒதுங்கியிருத்தல்
embitter	cause to feel bitter – to make hateful	வெறுப்புணர்ச்சி, கசப்புணர்வு
incapacitated	lacking in or deprived of strength or power	திறனற்றதாக்குதல், முடமாக்குதல்
bacteriological weapons	the use of harmful bacteria as a weapon	நுண்ணுயிரியல் ஆயுதங்கள்

EXERCISE

CXGI9

I Choose the correct answer

1. Which American President followed the policy of containment of Communism?.
   a) Woodrow Wilson
   b) Truman
   c) Theodore Roosevelt
   d) Franklin Roosevelt
2. When was People's Political Consultative Conference held in China?
   a) September 1959 b) September 1948
   c) September 1954 d) September 1949
3. The United States and European allies formed ____________ to resist any Soviet aggression in Europe.
   a) SEATO b) NATO
   c) SENTO d) Warsaw Pact
4. Who became the Chairman of the PLO's Executive Committee in 1969?
   a) Hafez al-Assad
   b) Yasser Arafat
   c) Nasser
   d) Saddam Hussein
5. When was North and South Vietnam united?
   a) 1975 b) 1976 c) 1973 d) 1974
6. When was the Warsaw Pact dissolved?
   a) 1979 b) 1989 c) 1990 d) 1991

II Fill in the blanks

1. ____________ was known as the "Father of modern China".
2. In 1918, the society for the study of Marxism was formed in ____________ University.
3. After the death of Dr. Sun Yat Sen, the leader of the Kuomintang party was ____________.
4. ____________ treaty is open to any Arab nation desiring peace and security in the region.
5. The treaty of ____________ provided for mandates in Turkish -Arab Empire.
6. Germany joined the NATO in ____________.
7. ____________ was the Headquarters of the Council of Europe.
8. ____________ treaty signed on February 7, 1992 created the European Union.

III Choose the correct statement/statements

1. i) In 1948 the Soviets had established socialist governments in the countries of eastern Europe that had been liberated from the Nazis by the Soviet Army.

   ii) The chief objective of NATO was to preserve peace and security in the North Atlantic region.

   iii) The member countries of SEATO were committed to prevent democracy from gaining ground in the region.

   a) (ii) and (iii) are correct

   b) (i) and (ii) are correct

   c) (i) and (iii) are correct

   d) (i), (ii) and (iii) are correct

2. **Assertion (A)**: America's Marshall Plan was for reconstruction of the war-ravaged Europe.

   Reason (R): The US conceived the Marshal Plan to bring the countries in the Western Europe under its influence.

   a) Both (A) and (R) are correct, but R is not the correct explanation of A

   b) Both (A) and (R) are wrong

   c) Both (A) and (R) are correct and R is the correct explanation of A

   d) (A) is wrong and (R) is correct

IV Match the following

1.	Dr. Sun Yat-Sen	-	South Vietnam
2.	Syngman Rhee	-	Kuomintung
3.	Anwar Sadat	-	South Korea
4.	Ho-Chi Minh	-	Egypt
5.	Ngo Dinh Diem	-	North Vietnam

V Answer briefly

1. Write any three causes for the Chinese Revolution of 1911.
2. Write a note on Mao's Long March.
3. What do you know of Baghdad Pact?
4. What was Marshall Plan?
5. Write a note on Third World Countries.
6. How was the Cuban missile crisis defused?

VI Answer in detail

1. Estimate the role of Mao Tse tung in making China a communist country.
2. Narrate the history of transformation of Council of Europe into an European Union.

VII Activity

1. Divide the class into two groups. Let one group act as supporters of USA and the other group act as supporters of Soviet Union, Organise a debate.
2. Involving the entire class, an album may be prepared with pictures relating to Korean, Arab-Israeli and Vietnam Wars to highlight the human sufferings in terms of death and devastation.

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Unit - 5

Social and Religious Reform Movements in the 19th Century

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The influence of Western ideas and Christianity in creating a new awakening in 19th century British India
- Contestation in the social and religious sphere – opposition to practices like sati, slavery, untouchability, and child marriage
- Opposition to idolatry, rituals and superstitious beliefs
- Contribution of Brahmo Samaj, Arya Samaj, Ramakrishna Mission, Theosophical Society and Aligarh Movement to the regeneration of India
- Role played by prominent personalities in bringing about this awakening amongst Parsees and Sikhs
- Social movement of Jyotiba Phule and reform movements in Kerala and Tamilnadu

Introduction

English education, introduced with the object of producing clerks, also produced a new English-educated middle class. This class came under the influence of western ideas and thoughts. Christianity also had its effect on the newly emerging middle class. Though small in number, the educated middle class began to take a lead in political as well as in reform movements. The Indian reformers were, however, quite hesitant to subject their old notions and habits to critical scrutiny. Instead they attempted to harmonize both Indian and Western cultures. Their ideas and their actions helped to mitigate social evils such as sati, female infanticide, and child marriage and various superstitious beliefs.

The reform movements of nineteenth century in the realm of religion fall under two broad categories: reformist movements like the Brahmo Samaj, the Prarthana Samaj and the Aligarh Movement; and the revivalist movements such as the Arya Samaj, the Ramakrishna Mission and the Deoband Movement. There were also attempts to challenge the oppressive social structure by Jyotiba Phule in Pune, Narayana Guru and Ayyankali in Kerala and Ramalinga Adigal, and Iyothee Thassar of Tamil Nadu.

5.1 Early Reform Movements in Bengal

(a) Raja Rammohan Roy and Brahmo Samaj

Rammohan Roy (1772–1833) was one of the earlier reformers influenced by the Western ideas to initiate reforms. He was a great scholar, well-versed in Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, and English apart from his knowledge

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in his mother tongue, Bengali. Rammohan Roy was opposed to meaningless religious ceremonies and all forms of pernicious social customs. Yet he wanted to preserve continuity with the past. In his religio–philosophical social outlook, he was deeply influenced by monotheism and anti-idolatry. Based on his interpretation of the Upanishads, he argued that all the ancient texts of the Hindus preached monotheism or worship of one God.

Raja Rammohan Roy

Deeply concerned with the prevailing social evils of sati, child marriage, and polygamy he published tracts against them and petitioned the government to legislate against them. He advocated the rights of widows to remarry. He wanted polygamy to end. He appealed to reason and humanity and compassion of the people. His campaign played a key role in forcing the Governor-General William Bentinck's legislation abolishing sati in 1829.

Rammohan Roy condemned the subjugation of women and opposed the prevailing ideas that women were inferior to men. He strongly advocated education for women. He gave his full support for the introduction of English language and western sciences in schools and colleges.

Rammohan Roy founded the Brahmo Samaj on 20 August 1828. He opened a temple in Calcutta, where there was no image. There he laid down that 'no religion should be reviled or slightly or contemptuously spoken off or alluded to.' The Samaj forbade idol-worship and condemned meaningless religious rites and ceremonies. However, from the beginning, the appeal of the Brahmo Samaj remained limited to the intellectuals and enlightened Bengalis. Though the Samaj failed to attract the people from the lower sections of society, its impact on the culture of modern Bengal and its middle class was quite significant.

(b) Maharishi Debendranath Tagore

Debendranath Tagore

After the death of Rammohan Roy (1833), Maharishi Debendranath Tagore (1817–1905), the poet Rabindranath Tagore's father, carried on the work. He laid down four articles of faith:

1. In the beginning there was nothing. The one Supreme Being alone existed who created the Universe.
2. He alone is the God of Truth, Infinite Wisdom, Goodness, and Power, eternal, omnipresent, the One without second.
3. Our salvation depends on belief in Him and in His worship in this world and the next.
4. Belief consists in loving Him and doing His will.

(c) Keshab Chandra Sen & Brahmo Samaj of India

Keshab Chandra Sen

Debendranath was a moderate reformer. But his younger colleagues in the Sabha were for rapid changes. The greatest of these, Keshab Chandra Sen, (1838–84) joined the movement in 1857. But in 1866 a split occurred in the ranks of Brahmo Samaj. Keshab left the Samaj and founded a new organization. Debendranath's organization, thereafter, came to be known as Adi Brahmo Samaj. After Keshab had his fourteen-year-old daughter married to an Indian prince, in contravention of the Samaj's condemnation of child marriages, the opponents of child marriage left the Brahmo Samaj of India and started the Sadharan Samaj.

(d) Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar

Another outstanding reformer in Bengal was Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar (1820–1891).

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Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar

While Ram Mohan Roy and others looked to western rationalist ideas to reform society, Vidyasagar argued that the Hindu scriptures were progressive. He provided evidence from scriptures that there was no sanction for burning of widows or for the prohibition on the remarriage of widows. He wrote a number of polemical tracts, and was the pioneer of modern Bengali prose. He played a leading role in promoting education of girls and helped them in setting up a number of schools. He dedicated his whole life for the betterment of the child widows of the Hindu society. The movement led by Vidyasagar, resulted in the Widows' Remarriage Reform Act of 1856. This Act was intended to improve the lot of child widows and save them from perpetual widowhood.

It was also to the credit of Vidyasagar that the first age of consent was included in the Indian Penal code, which was enacted in 1860. The age for marriage was fixed as ten years. It was raised to twelve and thirteen years in 1891 and 1925 respectively. Sadly, as reported in the Age of Consent Committee (1929), the law remained on paper and the knowledge of it was confined to judges, lawyers and a few educated men.

(e) Prarthana Samaj

The Maharashtra region was another region where reform activities gained steam. A movement similar to the Brahmo Samaj, but founded in Bombay in 1867, was Prarthana Samaj. Its founder was Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang (1825–1898). The two distinguished members of this Samaj were R.C. Bhandarkar and Justice Mahadev Govind Ranade. They devoted themselves to activities such as inter-caste dining, inter-caste marriage, widow remarriage and improvement of women and depressed classes. Mahadev Govind Ranade (1842–1901) was the founder of the Widow Marriage Association (1861), the Poona Sarvajanik Sabha (1870) and the Deccan Education Society (1884).

Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang

M.G. Ranade

5.2 Hindu Revivalism

(a) Swami Dayanand Saraswati and Arya Samaj 1875

Swami Dayanand Saraswati

In the Punjab, the reform movement was spearheaded by the Arya Samaj. It was founded (1875) by a wandering ascetic in the western Gangetic plain, Swami Dayanand Saraswati (1824–83). Swami Dayanand later settled in the Punjab to preach his ideas. His book, *Satyarthaprakash*, enjoyed wide circulation. He declared the practices such as child marriage, the prohibition of widow remarriage, and the alleged polluting effects of foreign travel had no scriptural sanction. The positive principles enunciated by Dayanand were: strict monotheism, condemnation of idolatry, and rejection of Brahman domination of ritual and social practices. He also rejected superstitious beliefs in Hinduism and his cry was "go back to Vedas."

Arya Samaj attempted to check the incidence of religious conversion in British India. One of its main objectives was counter-conversion, prescribing a purificatory ceremony called suddhi, directed at Hindus who had converted to Islam and Christianity.

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The primary achievements of the Arya Samaj were in the field of social reform and spread of education. The Samaj started a number of Dayananda Anglo–Vedic schools and colleges.

(b) Ramakrishna Paramahamsa

Ramakrishna (1836–86), a simple priest of Dakshineswar near Kolkata, emphasised the spiritual union with god through ecstatic practices such as singing bhajans. An ardent worshipper of goddess Kali, the sacred mother, he declared that the manifestations of the divine mother were infinite. In his view, all religions contain the universal elements which, if practised, would lead to salvation. He said, "Jiva is Siva" (all living beings are God). Service for man, must be regarded as God.'

Ramakrishna Paramahamsa

Ramakrishna Mission, Belur Math

Ramakrishna Mission

Ramakrishna's primary achievement was his ability to attract educated youth who were dissatisfied with the rational orientation of religious reform organizations such as the Brahmo Samaj. After his death in 1886, his disciples organised themselves as a religious community and undertook the task of making his life and teaching known in India and abroad. The chief spirit behind this task was Vivekananda. Following the organizational structure of Christian missionaries, Vivekananda established the Ramakrishna Mission which did not restrict itself to religious activities but was actively involved in social causes such as education, health care and relief in times of calamities.

(c) Swami Vivekananda

Swami Vivekananada

Narendra Nath Datta (1863–1902), later known as Swami Vivekananda, was the prime follower of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa. An educated youth, he was drawn to Ramakrishna's message. Dissatisfied with conventional philosophical positions and practices, he advocated the practical Vedanta of service to humanity and attacked the tendency to defend every institution simply because it was connected with religion. He emphasized a cultural nationalism and made a call to Indian youth to regenerate Hindu society. His ideas bred a sense of self-confidence among Indians who felt inferior in relation to the materialist achievements of the West. He became famous for his addresses on Hinduism at the 1893 World Congress of Religions in Chicago. Despite his fame, he was condemned by orthodox Hindus for suggesting that the lower castes should be allowed to engage in the Hindu rituals from which they were traditionally excluded. Vivekananda's activist ideology rekindled the desire for political change among many western-education young Bengalis. Many of the youths who were involved in the militant nationalist struggle during the Swadeshi movement following the Partition of Bengal were inspired by Vivekananda.

(d) Theosophical Movement

The Theosophical Society was founded by Madame H.P. Blavatsky (1831–1891) and Colonel H.S Olcott (1832–1907). Founded in the USA in 1875, it later shifted to India at Adyar, Chennai in 1886.

Theosophical Society stimulated a study of the Hindu classics, especially the Upanishads and the Bhagavad Gita. The Theosophical Society also played an important role in the revival of Buddhism in India. Western interest

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in Hindu scriptures gave educated Hindus great pride in their tradition and culture.

Contribution of Annie Besant

Annie Besant

In India the movement became further popular with the election of Annie Besant (1847–1933) as its president after the death of Olcott. She played a role in Indian nationalist politics, and formed the Home Rule League demanding home rule to India on the lines of Ireland. Annie Besant spread Theosophical ideas through her newspapers called *New India* and *Commonweal*.

5.3 Anti-Caste Movements

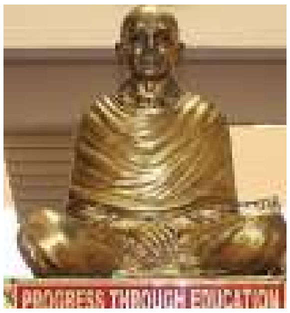
(a) Jyotiba Phule

Jyotiba Govindrao Phule was born in 1827 in Maharashtra. He opened the first school for "untouchables" in 1852 in Poona. He launched the Satyashodak Samaj (Truth-Seekers Society) in 1870 to stir the non-Brahman masses to self-respect. Phule opposed child marriage and supported widow remarriage. Jyotiba and his wife Savitriba Phule devoted their lives for the uplift of the depressed classes and women. Jotiba opened orphanages and homes for widows. His work, *Gulamgiri* (Slavery) is an important text that summarized many of his radical ideas.

Jyotiba Phule and Savitriba Phule

(b) Narayana Guru

Born to poor parents in Kerala, Narayana Guru (1854–1928) evolved into a poet and scholar in Malayalam, Tamil and Sanskrit. Disturbed by the terrible caste tyranny, that the lower caste people suffered, he dedicated his whole life for the betterment of the oppressed. He set up the Sri Narayana Dharma Paripalana Yogam, an organization to work for the uplift of the "depressed classes". He established a grand temple at Aruvipuram and dedicated it to all. Thinkers and writers such as Kumaran Asan and Dr Palpu were influenced by his ideas and carried forward the movement.



Narayana Guru

(c) Ayyankali

Ayyankali was born in 1863 at Venganoor in Thiruvananthapuram then in the princely state of Travancore. The discrimination he faced as a child turned him into a leader of an anti-caste movement and who later fought for basic rights including access to public spaces and entry to schools.

Ayyankali

Inspired by Sree Narayana Guru, Ayyankali founded the Sadhu Jana Paripalana Sangam (Association for the Protection of the Poor) in 1907.

5.4 Islamic Reforms

After the suppression of great revolt of 1857 Indian Muslims looked to Western culture with suspicion. The community feared that Western education, Western culture and Western ideas would endanger their religion. Therefore only a small section of Muslims accepted the new avenues for modern education.

Sir Sayyid Ahmed Khan

Born in Delhi into a noble Muslim family, Sayyid Ahmed Khan thought that lack

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of education, especially modern education, had harmed the Muslims greatly and kept them backward. He exhorted the Muslims to accept Western science and take up government services. He founded a scientific society and translated many English books, especially science books into Urdu. He believed that the interest of the Muslims would be best served if they bonded with the British Government rather than pitch in with the rising nationalist movement. So he advised the Muslims to take to English education and to concentrate on it.

Sayyid Ahmed Khan

Aligarh Movement

Sayyid Ahmed Khan's movement, the "Aligarh movement," is so called because it was centred around the Aligarh Mohammedan Anglo-Oriental college founded by him in 1875, which is a landmark in the history of Indian Muslim education. The college was raised to the status of a university in 1920.

Deoband Movement

Deoband was a revivalist movement organized by the orthodox Muslim Ulema. The Ulema under the leadership of Muhammad QasimWanotavi (1832-80) and Rashid Ahmad Gangotri (1828-1905) founded the school at Deoband in the Saharanpur district of the U.P in 1866. The school curricula shut out English education and western culture. The instruction imparted was in original Islamic religion and the aim was moral and religious regeneration of the Muslim community.

Maulana Mahmud-ul-Hassan became the new Deoband leader. The Jamait-Ul-Ulema (council of theologians) led by him gave a concrete shape to Hassan's ideas of protection of the religious and political rights of the Muslims in the overall context of Indian unity.

5.5 Parsi Reform Movement

In the middle of the nineteenth century the reform activities began in Mumbai. Furdunji Naoroji founded the Rahnumai Mazdayasnan Sabha (Parsis' Reform Society) in 1851. *Rast Goftar* (The Truth Teller) was the main voice of the movement. Behrramji Malabari organized a campaign for legislation against the practice of child marriage. The community produced many leaders such as Pherozeshah Mehta and Dinshaw Wacha who played a big role in the early Congress.

5.6 Sikh Reform Movement (Nirankaris and Namdharis)

Among the Sikhs of Punjab too there were attempts to reform. Baba Dayal Das, founder of the Nirankari Movement, stressed the worship of god as Nirankar (formless). Rejection of idols, rejection of rituals associated with idolatry, reverence for the authority of Guru Nanak and of the Adi Granth formed the essence of his teachings. He reiterated the prohibition on meat-eating, and liquor consumption.

The Namdhari Movement, founded by Baba Ram Singh, was another socio-religious movement among the Sikhs. The Namdharis insisted on wearing the symbols of Sikhism except the kirpan (sword). Instead Baba Ram Singh wanted his followers to carry a lathi. It considered both men and women equal and accepted widow remarriage. It prohibited the dowry system and child marriage.

In the wake of the gathering influence of Arya Samaj and the Christian missionaries, the Singh Sabha of Amritsar was established. Its main objective was to restore the purity of Sikhism. With the support of British, it established Khalsa College for the Sikhs in Amritsar. Singh Sabha was a forerunner of Akali Movement.

5.7 Social Reformers of Tamilnadu

(a) Ramalinga Swamigal

Popularly known as Vallalar, Ramalinga Swamigal or Ramalinga Adigal (1823–1874),

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was born in Marudhur, a village near Chidambaram. After his father's death, his family moved to his brother's house at Chennai. Despite having no formal education he gained immense scholarship. Ramalinga emphasised the bonds of responsibility and compassion between living beings. He expressed the view that 'those who lack compassion for suffering beings are hard-hearted, their wisdom clouded'. He showed his compassion and mercy on all living beings including plants. This he called jeevakarunya. He established the Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sangam in 1865 and it was renamed "Samarasa Suddha Sanmarga Satya Sanga" which means "Society for Pure Truth in Universal self-hood". Ramalinga also established a free feeding house for everyone irrespective of caste at Vadalur (1867), in the wake of a terrible famine in south India in 1866. His voluminous songs were compiled and published under the title Thiruvarutpa (Songs of Grace).

NSL6A

Ramalinga Adigal

Vadalur Satya Gnana Sabha

Ramalinga bore witness to hunger and poverty in the country: "I saw poor people, emaciated with hunger and terribly weary, going to every house, yet their hunger was not removed, and my heart suffered intensely. Those who suffer with relentless disease, I saw them in front of me and my heart trembled. I saw those people, poor and of unmatched honor, their hearts weary, and I grew weak."

b. Iyothee Thassar

Iyothithassar

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar (1845–1914) was a radical Tamil scholar, writer, *siddha* medicine practitioner, journalist and socio-political activist. Born in Chennai, he was fluent in Tamil, English, Sanskrit and Pali languages. He campaigned for social justice and worked for the emancipation of the "untouchables" from the caste clutches. He worked for the construction of a casteless identity and castigated caste hegemony and untouchability. He considered education as an important tool for empowerment and became the driving force behind the establishment of several schools for the "untouchables" in Tamil Nadu.

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar founded the *Advaidananda Sabha* to raise the voice for the temple entry of the "untouchables". In 1882, John Rathinam and Iyothee Thassar established a movement called, *Dravida Kazhagam* and launched a magazine called *Dravida Pandian* in 1885. He founded the *Dravida Mahajana Sabha* in 1891and organised the First Conference of the association at Nilgiris.

Pandithar Iyothee Thassar was disappointed with the Hindu dharma, which served as the basis for propagating and validating caste in Hindu society. Influenced by the Theosophist organizer, Colonel H.S. Olcott, he went to Sri Lanka in 1898 and converted to Buddhism. In the same year, he founded the Sakya Buddhist Society at Madras to construct the rational religious philosophy through Buddhist religion.

He started a weekly journal, *Oru Paisa Tamil*an, in 1907 and published it until his demise in 1914.

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SUMMARY

- The foundation of Brahmo Samaj by Ram mohan Roy and the role played by Maharishi Debendranath Tagore and Keshab Chandra Sen in carrying forward the Brahmo Samaj activities after Roy's death are discussed.
- The contribution of M.G. Ranade and Prarthana Samaj with which he was associated are examined.
- The attempts made by Arya Samaj under the aegis of Swami Dayanad Saraswati to reform Hinduism as well as to win converts to the Hindu fold are highlighted.
- The radical reformer Iswar Chandra Vidyasagar and his strivings for women's cause are described.
- The role of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa and his disciple Swami Vivekananda in the transformation of Hinduism is explained.
- The work done by Jyotiba Phule in Maharashtra and IyotheeThassar in Tamilnadu to obtain social justice for the marginalized and the deprived sections of the population is reviewed.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Alleged	stated but not proved	சொல்லப்படும்
Ecstatic	in a state of extreme happiness	பரவசமான
Voluminous	bulky	அதிகப் பரிமாணமுள்ள
Reiterated	repeat a statement for emphasis	வலியுறுத்துதல்
Idolatry	the practice of worshipping idols	உருவ வழிபாடு
Tract	a small booklet	சிறு நூல்
Revelation	disclosure	திருவெளிப்பாடு

EXERCISE

M6BGQ

I Choose the correct answer

1. In which year was Sati abolished?

   a) 1827 b) 1829 c) 1826 d) 1927

2. What was the name of the Samaj founded by Dayanand Saraswati?

   a) Arya Samaj

   b) Brahmo Samaj

   c) Prarthana Samaj

   d) Adi Brahmo Samaj

3. Whose campaign and work led to the enactment of Widow Remarriage Reform Act of 1856?

   a) Iswarchandra Vidyasagar

   b) Raja Rammohan Roy

   c) Annie Besant

   d) Jyotiba Phule

4. Whose voice was Rast Goftar?

   a) Parsi Movement

   b) Aligarh Movement

   c) Ramakrishna Mission

   d) Dravida Mahajana Sabha

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5. Who was the founder of Namdhari Movement?

a) Baba Dayal Das b) Baba Ramsingh

c) Gurunanak d) Jyotiba Phule

6. Who was the founder of Widow Remarriage Association?

a) Mahadev Govind Ranade

b) Devendranath Tagore

c) Jyotiba Phule

d) Ayyankali

7. Who was the author of the book *Satyarthaprakash* ?

a) Dayananda Saraswathi

b) Iyothee Thassar

c) Annie Besant

d) Narayana Guru

II Fill in the blanks

1. __________ founded the Samarasa Vedha Sanmarga Sangam.
2. The founder of Poona Sarvajanik Sabha was ______________.
3. Gulumgir was written by __________.
4. Ramakrishna Mission was established by __________.
5. __________ was the forerunner of Akali Movement.
6. *Oru paisa Tamilan* was started by __________.

III Choose the correct statement

1. i) Raja Rammohan Roy preached monotheism

ii) He encouraged idolatry

iii) He published tracts condemning social evils

a) i) is correct

b) i) and ii) are correct

c) i), ii) and iii) are correct

d) i) and iii) are correct

2. i) Prarthana Samaj was founded by Dr. Atma Ram Pandurang

ii) Prarthana Samaj encouraged inter-dining and inter-caste marriage

iii) Jyotiba Phule worked for the upliftment of men.

iv) Prarthana Samaj had it's origin in the Punjab.

a) i) is correct

b) ii) is correct

c) i) and ii) are correct

d) iii) and iv) are correct

3. i) Ramakrishna Mission was actively involved in social causes such as education, health care, relief in time of calamities.

ii) Ramakrishna emphasised the spiritual union with god through ecstatic practices.

iii) Ramakrishna established the Ramakrishna Mission

a) i) is correct b) i) and ii) are correct

c) iii) is correct d) i) and iii) correct

4. **Assertion:** Jyotiba Phule opened orphanages and homes for widows

Reason: Jyotiba Phule opposed child marriage and supported widow remarriage

a) Assertion is correct but reason is not apt to the assertion

b) Assertion is correct and the reason is apt to the assertion

c) Both are wrong

d) Reason is correct but assertion is irrelevant

IV Match the following

1.	*Oru paisa Tamilan*	-	Widows Remarriage Reform Act
2.	Thiruvarutpa	-	Nirankari
3.	Baba Dayal Das	-	Adi Bramo Samaj
4.	Iswarchandra Vidyasagar	-	Journal
5.	Debendranath	-	Songs of Grace

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V Answer briefly

1. Mention the four articles of faith laid down by Maharishi Debendranath Tagore?
2. Discuss Mahadev Govind Ranade's contribution to social reforms.
3. Write a note on reforms of Ramalinga Adigal.
4. List the social evils eradicated by Brahmo Samaj.
5. Highlight the work done by Jyotiba Phule for the welfare of the poor and the marginalized.

VI Answer in detail

1. Discuss the circumstances that led to the Reform movements of 19th century.
2. Evaluate the contributions of Ramakrishna Paramahamsa and Swami Vivekananda to regenerate Indian society.
3. Write an essay on the role played by the 19th century reformers towards the cause of Women.

VII Activity

1. Role-play by students on Reformers and their Reforms of the 19th century India.
2. Debate Social evils of 19th century with those of present day.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

1. https://www.deccanherald.com.
2. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/
timesofindia.com

ICT CORNER

Social and Religious Reform Movements in the 19th Century

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Type '**History of modern India**' in the search box
- Explore the Timeline Events with Pictorial Descriptions.

Website URL:

https://www.timetoast.com/categories

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Unit - 6

Early Revolts against British Rule in Tamil Nadu

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- Palayakkarar system and the revolts of Palayakkarars against the British
- Velunachiyar, Puli Thevar, Kattabomman and Marudhu Brothers in the anti-British uprisings
- Vellore Revolt as a response to British pacification of south India

6LXIO

Introduction

After defeating the French and their Indian allies in the three Carnatic Wars, the East India Company began to consolidate and extend its power and influence. However, local kings and feudal chieftains resisted this. The first resistance to East India Company's territorial aggrandisement was from Puli Thevar of Nerkattumseval in the Tirunelveli region. This was followed by other chieftains in the Tamil country such as Velunachiyar, Veerapandiya Kattabomman, the Marudhu brothers, and Dheeran Chinnamalai. Known as the Palayakkarars Wars, the culmination of which was Vellore Revolt of 1806, this early resistance to British rule in Tamilnadu is dealt with in this lesson.

6.1 Resistance of Regional Powers against the British

(a) Palayams and Palayakkarars

The word "palayam" means a domain, a military camp, or a little kingdom. Palayakkarars (Poligar is how the British referred to them) in Tamil refers to the holder of a little kingdom as a feudatory to a greater sovereign. Under this system, palayam was given for valuable military services rendered by any individual. This type of Palayakkarars system was in practice during the rule of Prataba Rudhra of Warangal in the Kakatiya kingdom. The system was put in place in Tamilnadu by Viswanatha Nayaka, when he became the Nayak ruler of Madurai in 1529, with the support of his minister Ariyanathar. Traditionally there were supposed to be 72 Palayakkarars.

The Palayakkarars were free to collect revenue, administer the territory, settle disputes and maintain law and order. Their police duties were known as Padikaval or Arasu Kaval. On many occasions the Palayakarars helped the Nayak rulers to restore the kingdom to them. The personal relationship and an understanding between the King and the Palayakkarars made the system to last for about two hundred years from the Nayaks of Madurai, until the takeover of these territories by the British.

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Eastern and Western Palayams

Among the 72 Palayakkarars, created by the Nayak rulers, there were two blocs, namely the prominent eastern and the western Palayams. The eastern Palayams were Sattur, Nagalapuram, Ettayapuram, and Panchalamkurichi and the prominent western palayams were Uthumalai, Thalavankottai, Naduvakurichi, Singampatti, Seithur.

6.2 Palayakkarars' Revolt 1755-1801

(a) Revolt of Puli Thevar 1755–1767

Puli Thevar

In March 1755 Mahfuzkhan (brother of the Nawab of Arcot) was sent with a contingent of the Company army under Colonel Heron to Tirunelveli. Madurai easily fell into their hands. Thereafter Colonel Heron was urged to deal with Puli Thevar as he continued to defy the authority of the Company. Puli Thevar wielded much influence over the western palyakkarars. For want of cannon and of supplies and pay to soldiers, Colonel Heron abandoned the plan and retired to Madurai. Heron was recalled and dismissed from service.

Confederacy and Alliance with Enemies of the British

Three Pathan officers, Nawab Chanda Sahib's agents, named Mianah, Mudimiah and Nabikhan Kattak commanded the Madurai and Tirunelveli regions. They supported the Tamil playakkarars against Arcot Nawab Mohamed Ali. Puli Thevar had established close relationships with them. Puli Thevar also formed a confederacy of the Palayakkars to fight the British. With the exception of the Palayakkarars of Sivagiri, all other Maravar Palayams supported him. Ettayapuram and Panchalamkurichi also did not join this confederacy. Further, the English succeeded in getting the support of the rajas of Ramanathapuram and Pudukottai. Puli Thevar tried to get the support of Hyder Ali of Mysore and the French. Hyder Ali could not help Puli Thevar as he was already locked in a serious conflict with the Marathas.

Kalakadu Battle

The Nawab sent an additional contingent of sepoys to Mahfuzkhan and the reinforced army proceeded to Tirunelveli. Besides the 1000 sepoys of the Company, Mahfuzkhan received 600 more sent by the Nawab. He also had the support of cavalry and foot soldiers from the Carnatic. Before Mahfuzkhan could station his troops near Kalakadu, 2000 soldiers from Travancore joined the forces of Puli Thevar. In the battle at Kalakadu, Mahfuzkhan's troops were routed.

Yusuf Khan and Puli Thevar

The organized resistance of the palayakkarars under Puli Thevar gave an opportunity to the English to interfere directly in the affairs of Tirunelveli. Aided by the Raja of Travancore, from 1756 to 1763, the palyakkarars of Tirunelveli led by Puli Thevar were in a constant state of rebellion against the Nawab's authority. Yusuf Khan (also known as Khan Sahib or, before his conversion to Islam, Marudhanayagam) who had been sent by the Company was not prepared to attack Puli Thevar unless the big guns and ammunition from Tiruchirappalli arrived. As the English were at war with the French, as well as with Hyder Ali and Marathas, the artillery arrived only in September 1760. Yusuf Khan began to batter the Nerkattumseval fort and this attack continued for about two months. On 16 May 1761 Puli Thevar's three major forts (Nerkattumseval, Vasudevanallur and Panayur) came under the control of Yusuf Khan.

In the meantime, after taking Pondicherry the English had eliminated the French from the picture. As a result of this the unity of palyakkarars began to break up as French

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support was not forthcoming. Travancore, Seithur, Uthumalai and Surandai switched their loyalty to the opposite camp. Yusuf Khan who was negotiating with the palayakkarars, without informing the Company administration, was charged with treachery and hanged in 1764.

Fall of Puli Thevar

After the death of Khan Sahib, Puli Thevar returned from exile and recaptured Nerkattumseval in 1764. However, he was defeated by Captain Campbell in 1767. Puli Thevar escaped and died in exile.

Ondiveeran: Ondiveeran led one of the army units of Puli Thevar. Fighting by the side of Puli Thevar, he caused much damage to the Company's army. According to oral tradition, in one battle, Ondiveeran's hand was chopped off and Puli Thevar was saddened. But Ondiveeran said it was a reward for his penetration into enemy's fort causing many heads to roll.

(b) Velunachiyar (1730–1796)

Born in 1730 to the Raja Sellamuthu Sethupathy of Ramanathapuram, Velunachiyar was the only daughter of this royal family. The king had no male heir. The royal family brought up the princess Velunachiyar, training her in martial arts like *valari*, stick fighting and to wield weapons. She was also adept in horse riding and archery, apart from her proficiency in English, French and Urdu.

At the age of 16, Velunachiyar was married to Muthu Vadugar, the Raja of Sivagangai, and had a daughter by name Vellachinachiar. In 1772, the Nawab of Arcot and the Company troops under the command of Lt. Col. Bon Jour stormed the Kalaiyar Kovil Palace. In the ensuing battle Muthu Vadugar was killed. Velunachiyar escaped with her daughter and lived under the protection of Gopala Nayak at Virupachi near Dindigul for eight years.

Velunachiyar

Gopala Nayak, the Palayakkarar of Virupachi: Gopala Nayak spearheaded the famous Dindigul League, which was formed with Lakshmi Nayak of Manaparai and Poojai Nayak of Devadanapatti. He drew inspiration from Tipu Sultan who sent a deputation to show his camaraderie. He led the resistance against the British from Coimbatore and later joined Oomaidurai, Kattabomman's brother. He put up a fierce fight at Aanamalai hills where the local peasants gave him full support. But Gopala Nayak was overpowered by the British forces in 1801.

During her period in hiding, Velunachiyar organised an army and succeeded in securing an alliance with not only Gopala Nayakar but Hyder Ali as well. Dalavay (military chief) Thandavarayanar wrote a letter to Sultan Hyder Ali on behalf of Velunachiyar asking for 5000 infantry and 5000 cavalry to defeat the English. Velunachiyar explained in detail in Urdu all the problems she had with East India Company. She conveyed her strong determination to fight the English. Impressed by her courage, Hyder Ali ordered his Commandant Syed in Dindigul fort to provide the required military assistance.

Velunachiyar employed agents for gathering intelligence to find where the British had stored their ammunition. With military assistance from Gopala Nayak and

Kuyili, a faithful friend of Velunachiyar, is said to have led the unit of women soldiers named after Udaiyaal. Udaiyaal was a shepherd girl who was killed for not divulging information on Kuyili. Kuyili is said to have walked into the British arsenal (1780) after setting herself on fire, thus destroying all the ammunition.

Kuyili

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Hyder Ali she recaptured Sivagangai. She was crowned as Queen with the help of Marudhu brothers. She was the first female ruler or queen to resist the British colonial power in India.

(c) Rebellion of Veerapandya Kattabomman 1790-1799

Veerapandya Kattabomman became the Palayakkarar of Panchalamkurichi at the age of thirty on the death of his father, Jagavira Pandya Kattabomman. The Company's administrators, James London and Colin Jackson, had considered him a man of peaceful disposition. However, soon several events led to conflicts between Veerapandya Kattabomman and the East India Company. The Nawab, under the provisions of a treaty signed in 1781, had assigned the revenue of the Carnatic to the Company to be entirely under their management and control during the war with Mysore Sultan. One-sixth of the revenue was to be allowed to meet the expenses of Nawab and his family. The Company had thus gained the right to collect taxes from Panchalamkurichi. The Company appointed its Collectors to collect taxes from all the palayams. The Collectors humiliated the palayakkarars and adopted force to collect the taxes. This was the bone of contention between the English and Kattabomman.

Kattabomman

Confrontation with Jackson

The land revenue arrear from Kattabomman was 3310 pagodas in 1798. Collector Jackson, an arrogant English officer, wanted to send an army to collect the revenue dues but the Madras Government did not give him permission. On 18 August 1798, he ordered Kattabomman to meet him in Ramanathapuram. But Kattbomman's attempts to meet him in between proved futile, as Jackson refused to give him audience both in Courtallam and Srivilliputhur. At last, an interview was granted and Kattabomman met Jackson in Ramanathapurm on 19 September 1798. It is said that Kattabomman had to stand for three hours before the haughty Collector Jackson. Sensing danger, Kattabomman tried to escape, along with his minister Sivasubramanianar. Oomaithurai suddenly entered the fort with his men and helped the escape of Kattabomman. At the gate of the Ramanathapuram fort there was a clash, in which some people including Lieutenant Clarke were killed. Sivasubramanianar was taken prisoner.

Appearance before Madras Council

On his return to Panchalamkurichi, Kattabomman represented to the Madras Council about how he was ill-treated by the collector Jackson. The Council asked Kattabomman to appear before a committee with William Brown, William Oram and John Casamajor as members. Meanwhile, Governor Edward Clive, ordered the release of Sivasubramanianar and the suspension of the Collector Jackson. Kattabomman appeared before the Committee that sat on 15 December 1798 and reported on what transpired in Ramanathapuram. The Committee found Kattabomman was not guilty. Jackson was dismissed from service and a new Collector S.R. Lushington appointed. Kattabomman cleared almost all the revenue arrears leaving only a balance of 1080 pagodas.

Kattabomman and the Confederacy of Palayakkarars

In the meantime, Marudhu Pandiyar of Sivagangai formed the South Indian Confederacy of rebels against the British, with the neighbouring palayakkars like Gopala Nayak of Dindigul and Yadul Nayak of Aanamalai. Marudhu Pandiyar acted as its leader. The Tiruchirappalli Proclamation had been made. Kattabomman was interested in this confederacy. Collector Lushington

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prevented Kattabomman from meeting the Marudhu Brothers. But Marudhu Brothers and Kattabomman jointly decided on a confrontation with the English. Kattabomman tried to influence Sivagiri Palayakkarars, who refused to join. Kattabomman advanced towards Sivagiri. But the Palayakkarars of Sivagiri was a tributary to the Company. So the Company considered the expedition of Kattabomman as a challenge to their authority. The Company ordered the army to march on to Tirunelveli.

The Siege of Panchalamkurichi

In May 1799, Lord Wellesley issued orders from Madras for the advance of forces from Tiruchirappalli, Thanjavur and Madurai to Tirunelveli. Major Bannerman commanded the troops. The Travancore troops too joined the British. On 1 September 1799, an ultimatum was served on Kattabomman to surrender. Kattabomman's "evasive reply" prompted Bannerman to attack his fort. Bannerman moved his entire army to Panchalamkurichi on 5 September. They cut off all the communications to the fort. Bannerman deputed Ramalinganar to convey a message asking Kattabomman to surrender. Kattabomman refused. Ramalinganar gathered all the secrets of the Fort, and on the basis of his report, Bannerman decided the strategy of the operation. In a clash at Kolarpatti, Sivasubramanianar was taken a prisoner.

Panchalamkurichi Fort

Execution of Kattabomman

Kattabomman escaped to Pudukottai. The British put a prize on his head. Betrayed by the rajas of Ettayapuram and Pudukottai Kattabomman was finally captured. Sivasubramanianar was executed at Nagalapuram on the 13 September. Bannerman made a mockery of a trial for Kattabomman in front of the palayakarars on 16 October. During the trial Kattabomman bravely admitted all the charges levelled against him. Kattabomman was hanged from a tamarind tree in the old fort of Kayathar, close to Tirunelveli, in front of the fellow Palayakkars. Thus ended the life of the celebrated Palayakkarars of Panchalamkurichi. Many folk ballads on Kattabomman helped keep his memory alive among the people.

(d) The Marudhu Brothers

Periya Marudhu or Vella Marudhu (1748–1801) and his younger brother Chinna Marudhu (1753-1801) were able generals of Muthu Vadugar of Sivagangai. After Muthu Vadugar's death in the Kalaiyar Kovil battle Marudhu brothers assisted in restoring the throne to Velunachiyar. In the last years of the eighteenth century Marudhu Brothers organised resistance against the British. After the death of Kattabomman, they worked along with his brother Oomathurai. They plundered the granaries of the Nawab and caused damage and destruction to Company troops.

Marudhu Brothers

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Rebellion of Marudhu Brothers (1800–1801)

Despite the suppression of Kattabomman's revolt in 1799, rebellion broke out again in 1800. In the British records it is referred to as the Second Palayakarar War. It was directed by a confederacy consisting of Marudhu Pandyan of Sivagangai, Gopala Nayak of Dindugal, Kerala Verma of Malabar and Krishnappa Nayak and Dhoondaji of Mysore. In April 1800 they meet at Virupachi and decided to organise an uprising against the Company. The uprising, which broke out in Coimbatore in June 1800, soon spread to Ramanathapuram and Madurai. The Company got wind of it and declared war on Krishnappa Nayak of Mysore, Kerala Varma of Malabar and others. The Palayakars of Coimbatore, Sathyamangalam and Tarapuram were caught and hanged.

In February 1801 the two brothers of Kattabomman, Oomathurai and Sevathaiah, escaped from the Palayamkottai prison to Kamudhi, from where Chinna Marudhu took them to Siruvayal his capital. The fort at Panchalamkurichi was reconstructed in record time. The British troops under Colin Macaulay retook the fort in April and the Marudhu brothers sought shelter in Sivagangai. The English demanded that the Marudhu Pandyars hand over the fugitives (Oomathurai and Sevathaiah). But they refused. Colonel Agnew and Colonel Innes marched on Sivagangai. In June 1801 Marudhu Pandyars issued a proclamation of Independence which is called Tiruchirappalli Proclamation.

Proclamation of 1801

The Proclamation of 1801 was an early call to the Indians to unite against the British, cutting across region, caste, creed and religion. The proclamation was pasted on the walls of the Nawab's palace in Tiruchirappalli fort and on the walls of the Srirangam temple. Many palayakkars of Tamil country rallied together to fight against the English. Chinna Marudhu collected nearly 20,000 men to challenge the English army. British reinforcements were rushed from Bengal, Ceylon and Malaya. The rajas of Pudukkottai, Ettayapuram and Thanjavur stood by the British. Divide and rule policy followed by the English spilt the forces of the palayakkarars soon.

Fall of Sivagangai

In May 1801, the English attacked the rebels in Thanjavur and Tiruchirappalli. The rebels went to Piranmalai and Kalayarkoil. They were again defeated by the forces of the English. In the end the superior military strength and the able commanders of the English Company prevailed. The rebellion failed and Sivagangai was annexed in 1801. The Marudhu brothers were executed in the Fort of Tirupathur near Ramanathapuram on 24 October 1801. Oomathurai and Sevathaiah were captured and beheaded at Panchalamkurichi on 16 November 1801. Seventy-three rebels were exiled to Penang in Malaya. Though the palayakkarars fell to the English, their exploits and sacrifices inspired later generations. Thus the rebellion of Marudhu brothers, which is called South Indian Rebellion, is a landmark event in the history of Tamil Nadu.

Carnatic Treaty, 1801

The suppression of the Palayakkarars rebellions of 1799 and 1800–1801 resulted in the liquidation of all the local chieftains of Tamilnadu. Under the terms of the Carnatic Treaty of 31 July 1801, the British assumed direct control over Tamilagam and the Palayakarar system came to an end with the demolition of all forts and disbandment of their army.

(e) Dheeran Chinnamalai (1756–1805)

Dheeran Chinnamalai

Born as Theerthagiri in 1756, Dheeran was well trained in silambu, archery, horse riding and modern warfare. He was involved in resolving family and land disputes in the

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Kongu region. As this region was under the control of the Mysore Sultan, tax was collected by Tipu's Diwan Mohammed Ali. Once, when the Diwan was returning to Mysore with the tax money, Theerthagiri blocked his way and confiscated all the tax money. He let Mohammed Ali go by instructing him to tell his Sultan that "Chinnamalai", who is between Sivamalai and Chennimalai, was the one who took away taxes. Thus he gained the name "Dheeran Chinnamalai". The offended Diwan sent a contingent to attack Chinnamalai and both the forces met and fought at the Noyyal river bed. Chinnamalai emerged victorious.

After Tipu's death Dheeran Chinnamalai built a fort and fought the British without leaving the place. Hence the place is called *Odanilai*. He launched guerrilla attacks and evaded capture. Finally the English captured him and his brothers and kept them in prison in Sankagiri. When they were asked to accept the rule of the British, they refused. So they were hanged at the top of the Sankagiri Fort on 31 July 1805.

6.3 Vellore Revolt 1806

Before reducing all palayakkarars of south Tamilnadu into submission the East India Company had acquired the revenue districts of Salem, Dindigul at the conclusion of the war with Tipu in 1792. Coimbatore was annexed at the end of the Anglo-Mysore War in 1799. In the same year the Raja of Thanjavur whose status had been reduced to that of a vassal in 1798 gave up his sovereign rights over that region to the English. After the suppression of resistance of Kattabomman (1799) and Marudhu Brothers (1801), the British charged the Nawab of Arcot with disloyalty and forced a treaty on him. According to this Treaty of 1801, the Nawab was to cede the districts of North Arcot, South Arcot, Tiruchirappalli, Madurai and Tirunelveli to the Company and transfer all the administrative powers to it.

(a) Grievances of Indian Soldiers

But the resistance did not die down. The dispossessed little kings and feudal chieftains continued to deliberate on the future course of action against the Company Government. The outcome was the Vellore Revolt of 1806. The objective conditions for a last ditch fight existed on the eve of the revolt. The sepoys in the British Indian army nursed a strong sense of resentment over low salary and poor prospects of promotion. The English army officers' scant respect for the social and religious sentiments of the Indian sepoys also angered them. The state of peasantry from which class the sepoys had been recruited also bothered them much. With new experiments in land tenures causing unsettled conditions and famine breaking out in 1805 many of the sepoys' families were in dire economic straits. The most opportune situation come with the sons and the family members of Tipu being interned in Vellore Fort. The trigger for the revolt came in the form of a new military regulation notified by the Commander-in-Chief Sir John Cradock.

According to the new regulations, the Indian soldiers were asked not to wear caste marks or ear rings when in uniform. They were to be cleanly shaven on the chin and maintain uniformity about how their moustache looked. The new turban added fuel to fire. The most objectionable addition was the leather cockade made of animal skin. The sepoys gave enough forewarning by refusing to wear the new turban. Yet the Company administration did not take heed.

(b) Outbreak of the Revolt

On 10 July 1806, in the early hours, guns were booming and the Indian sepoys of the 1st and 23rd regiments raised their standard of revolt. Colonel Fancourt, who commanded the garrison, was the first victim. Colonel MeKerras of the 23rd regiment was killed next. Major Armstrong who was passing the Fort heard the sound of firing. When he stopped to enquire he was showered with bullets. About a dozen other officers were killed within an hour or so.

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Among them Lt. Elly and Lt. Popham belonged to His Majesty's battalion.

Gillespie's Brutality

Major Cootes, who was outside the Fort, informed Colonel Gillespie, the cavalry commandant in Arcot. Gillespie reached the fort along with a squadron of cavalry under the command of Captain Young at 9.00 am. In the meantime, the rebels proclaimed Fateh Hyder, Tipu's eldest son, as their new ruler and hoisted the tiger flag of Mysore sultans in the Fort. But the uprising was swiftly crushed by Col. Gillespie, who threw to winds all war ethics. In the course of suppression, according to an eyewitness account, eight hundred soldiers were found dead in the fort alone. Six hundred soldiers were kept in confinement in Tiruchirappalli and Vellore awaiting Inquiry.

(c) Consequences of Revolt

Six of the rebels convicted by the Court of Enquiry were blown from the guns; five were shot dead; eight hanged. Tipu's sons were ordered to be sent to Calcutta. The officers and men engaged in the suppression of the revolt were rewarded with prize money and promotion. Col. Gillespie was given 7,000 pagodas. However, the commander–in-chief Sir John Cradock, the Adjutant General Agnew and Governor William Bentinck were held responsible for the revolt, removed from their office, and recalled to England. The military regulations were treated as withdrawn.

(d) Estimate of Revolt

The Vellore Revolt failed because there was no immediate help from outside. Recent studies show that the organising part of the revolt was done perfectly by Subedars Sheik Adam and Sheik Hamid and Jamedar Sheik Hussain of the 2nd battalion of 23rd regiment and two Subedars and the Jamedar Sheik Kasim of the 1st battalion of the 1st regiment. Vellore Revolt had all the forebodings of the Great Rebellion of 1857. The only difference was that there was no civil rebellion following the mutiny. The 1806 revolt was not confined to Vellore Fort. It had its echoes in Bellary, Walajabad, Hyderabad, Bengaluru, Nandydurg, and Sankaridurg.

SUMMARY

- Prominent Palayakkarars of Tamil country and their resistance to the rule of East India Company are discussed.
- The wars waged by Puli Thevar, Velunachiyar, Veerapandya Kattabomman, followed by Marudhu brothers of Sivagangai and Dheeran Chinnamalai against the British are elaborated.
- The reasons for the Vellore Revolt and the ruthless manner in which it was suppressed by Gillespie are detailed.

A-Z GLOSSARY

protege	dependent, a person who receives support from a patron	பிறர் ஆதரவில் இருப்பவர்
aggrandizement	the act of elevating or raising one's wealth, prestige and power	செல்வாக்கை வளர்த்தல், ஆக்கிரமிப்பு செய்தல்
defiant	resisting, disobedient	பணிய மறுக்கும்

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tranquillity	harmony, peace, free from disturbances	அமைதி
treachery	disloyalty, betrayal, breach of trust	வஞ்சித்தல்
audacious	daring, fearless	பயமற்ற, துணிவுமிக்க
ultimatum	a final dominating demand	இறுதி எச்சரிக்கை
bounty	payment or reward – something given liberally	கொடை
cockade	an ornament, especially a knot of ribbon worn on the hat	தொப்பியை அணிசெய்யும் குஞ்சம்
cognizance	notice, having knowledge of	கவனம்
trounce	crush, defeat	தோற்கடி
interned	imprisoned	சிறைப்படுத்தல்

EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. Who was the first Palayakkarars to resist the East India Company's policy of territorial aggrandizement?
   a) Marudhu brothers
   b) Puli Thevar
   c) Velunachiyar
   d) Veerapandya Kattabomman

2. Who had established close relationship with the three agents of Chanda Sahib?
   a) Velunachiyar
   b) Kattabomman
   c) Puli Thevar
   d) Oomai thurai

3. Where was Sivasubramanianar executed?
   a) Kayathar
   b) Nagalapuram
   c) Virupachi
   d) Panchalamkurichi

4. Who issued the Tiruchirappalli proclamation of Independence?
   a) Marudhu brothers
   b) Puli Thevar
   c) Veerapandya Kattabomman
   d) Gopala Nayak

5. When did the Vellore Revolt breakout?
   a) 24 May 1805
   b) 10 July 1805
   c) 10 July 1806
   d) 10 September 1806

6. Who was the Commander-in-Chief responsible for the new military regulations in Vellore fort?
   a) Col. Fancourt
   b) Major Armstrong
   c) Sir John Cradock
   d) Colonel Agnew

7. Where were the sons of Tipu Sultan sent after the Vellore Revolt?
   a) Calcutta
   b) Mumbai
   c) Delhi
   d) Mysore

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II Fill in the blanks

1. The Palayakkarars system was put in place in Tamil Nadu by ___________.
2. Velunachiyar and her daughter were under the protection of ___________ for eight years.
3. Bennerman deputed ___________ to convey his message, asking Kattabomman to surrender.
4. Kattabomman was hanged to death at ___________.
5. The Rebellion of Marudhu Brothers was categorized in the British records as the ___________.
6. ___________ was declared the new Sultan by the rebels in Vellore Fort.

III Choose the correct statement

1. i) The Palayakkarars system was in practice in the Kakatiya Kingdom.

   ii) Puli Thevar recaptured Nerkattumseval in 1764 after the death of Khan Sahib.

   iii) Yusuf Khan who was negotiating with the Palayakkarars, without informing the Company administration was charged with treachery and hanged in 1764.

   iv) Ondiveeran led one of the army units of Kattabomman.

   a) (i), (ii) and (iv) are correct
   b) (i), (ii) and (iii) are correct
   c) (iii) and (iv) are correct
   d) (i) and (iv) are correct

2. i) Under Colonel Campbell, the English Army went along with Mahfuzkhan's army.

   ii) After Muthu Vadugar's death in Kalaiyar Kovil battle, Marudhu Brothers assisted Velunachiyar in restoring the throne to her.

   iii) Gopala Nayak spearheaded the famous Dindigul League.

   iv) In May 1799 Cornwallis ordered the advance of Company armies to Tirunelveli.

   a) (i) and (ii) are correct
   b) (ii) and (iii) are correct
   c) (ii), (iii) and (iv)are correct
   d) (i) and (iv) are correct

3. **Assertion (A)**:Puli Thevar tried to get the support of Hyder Ali and the French.

   Reason (R): Hyder Ali could not help Puli Thevar as he was already in a serious conflict with the Marathas.

   a) Both (A) and (R) are correct, but (R) is not the correct explanation of (A)
   b) Both (A) and (R) are wrong
   c) Both (A) and (R) are correct and (R) is the correct explanation of (A)
   d) (A) is wrong and (R) is correct

IV Match the following

1.	Theerthagiri	-	Vellore Revolt
2.	Gopala Nayak	-	Ramalinganar
3.	Bannerman	-	Dindigul
4.	Subedar Sheik Adam	-	Odanilai

V Answer the questions briefly

1. What were the duties of the Palayakkarars?
2. Identify the Palayams based on the division of east and west.
3. What was the significance of the Battle of Kalakadu?
4. What was the bone of contention between the Company and Kottabomman?
5. Highlight the essence of the Tiruchirappalli Procalamation of 1801.

VI Answer in detail

1. Attempt an essay of the heroic fight Veerapandya Kattabomman conducted against the East India Company.

2. Highlight the tragic fall of Sivagangai and its outcome.

3. Account for the outbreak of Vellore Revolt in 1806.

VII Activities

1. Teacher can ask the students to prepare an album of patriotic leaders of early revolts against the British rule in Tamil Nadu. Using their imagination they can also draw pictures of different battles in which they attained martyrdom

2. Stage play visualising the conversation between Jackson and Kattabomman be attempted by students with the help of teachers.

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Unit - 7

Anti-Colonial Movements and the Birth of Nationalism

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- The nature of tribal and peasant revolts against the British
- Contributory factors for the outbreak of the Great Rebellion of 1857 and the subsequent changes in the British approach to governing India
- Factors leading to the formation of the Indian National Congress and the perspectives of the early nationalists
- Divide and rule policy of the British behind the Partition of Bengal (1905) and the launch of Swadeshi movement in Bengal
- Background for the launch of Home Rule Movement

Introduction

On 23 June 1757 the Nawab of Bengal Siraj-ud-daulah was defeated by the East India Company at the Battle of Plassey. The battle was orchestrated by Robert Clive, commander-in-chief of the East India Company, who managed to get the clandestine support from Mir Jafar, the uncle of Siraj-ud-daulah and the chief of the Nawab's army. Clive was helped by the Jagat Seths (moneylenders from Bengal) who were aggrieved by Siraj-ud-daulah's policy. Between 1757 and 1760, the company received ₹ 22.5 million from Mir Jafar, who became the new *Nawab* of Bengal. The same money was later invested to propel the industrial revolution in Britain, which rapidly mechanised the British textile industry. On the other hand, India was led to the path of de-industrialisation and forced to create a market for the products manufactured in Britain. The plunder of India by the East India Company continued for another 190 years.

In this lesson the story of resistance and a varied range of response against the British rule in the Indian subcontinent from the early and mid-nineteenth century to the early twentieth century are outlined.

7.1 Peasant and Tribal Resistance

While the urban elite of India was busy responding to the western ideas and rationality by engaging in various socio-religious reform movements, a far more aggressive response to the British rule emerged in rural India. The traditional elite and peasantry along with the tribals revolted. They were not necessarily seeking the removal of British but rather the restoration of the pre-colonial order.

There were nearly a hundred peasant uprisings during British rule. They can be classified into the following categories:

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a. **Restorative rebellions** – Agitation of this type relates to attempts to restore old order and old social relations.

b. **Religious Movements** – Such agitations were led by religious leaders who fought for the liberation of the local populace by restructuring society on certain religious principles.

c. **Social Banditry** – The leaders of such movements were considered criminal by the British and the traditional elite but were looked upon by their people as heroes or champions of their cause.

d. **Mass Insurrection** – Usually leaderless and spontaneous uprising.

Changes in the Revenue System

The East India Company restructured the Mughal revenue system across India in such a manner that it increased the financial burden on the peasants. There was no widespread system of private ownership of the land in pre-British India.

Subletting of Land

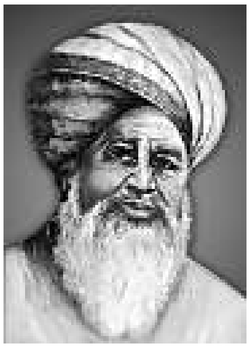
The practice of letting out and subletting of land complicated the agrarian relations. The zamindar often sublet land to many subordinate lords who in return collected a fixed amount of revenue from the peasant. This increased the tax burden on the peasants.

(a) Peasant Uprising

Peasant revolts began to erupt in the early 19th century and continued till the very end of British rule in India.

Farazi Movement

Farazi movement was launched by Haji Shariatullah in 1818. After the death of Shariatullah in 1839, the rebellion was led by his son Dudu Mian who called upon the peasants not to pay tax. It gained popularity on a simple doctrine that land and all wealth should be equally enjoyed by the common folk. Dudu Mian laid emphasis on the egalitarian nature of religion and declared that "Land belongs to God", and collecting rent or levying taxes on it was therefore against divine law. Large numbers of peasants were mobilised through a network of village organisations. After the death of Dudu Mian in 1862, the was revived in the 1870s by Noah Mian.



Haji Shariatullah

Wahhabi Rebellion in Barasat

Titu Mir

The Wahhabi rebellion was an anti-imperial and anti-landlord movement. It originated in and around 1827, in the Barasat region of Bengal. It was led by an Islamic preacher Titu Mir who was deeply influenced by the Wahhabi teachings. He became an influential figure among the predominately Muslim peasantry oppressed under the coercive zamindari system.

(b) Tribal Uprising

Under colonial rule, for the first time in Indian history, government claimed a direct proprietary right over forests. The British rule and its encouragement of commercialisation of forest led to the disintegration of the traditional tribal system. It encouraged the incursion of tribal areas by the non-tribal people such as moneylenders, traders, land-grabbers, and contractors. This led to the widespread loss of adivasi land and their displacement from their traditional habitats.

Tribal resistance was therefore, a response against those who either introduced changes in the peaceful tribal life or took undue advantage of the innocence of the tribal people.

(i) Kol Revolt

One major tribal revolt, the Kol uprising of 1831-32, took place in Chota Nagpur and Singbhum region of present day Jharkhand and Odisha, under the leadership of Bindrai and Singhrai. The Raja of Chhota Nagpur had

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leased out to moneylenders the job of revenue collection. The usury and forcible eviction of tribals from their land led to the resentment of Kols. The initial protest and resistance kols was in the form of plunder, arson and attacks on the properties of outsiders. This was followed by the killing of moneylenders and merchants. The tribal leaders adopted varied methods to spread their message such as the beating of drums accompanied by a warning to all outsiders to leave. `The British suppressed the rebellion with great violence.

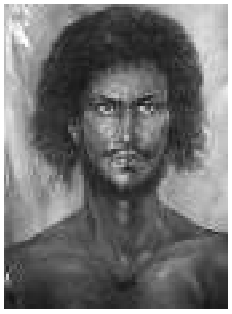
(ii) Santhal Hool (Insurrection)

Santhals, scattered in various parts of eastern India, when forced to move out of their homeland during the process of creation of zamins under Permanent Settlement, cleared the forest area around the Rajmahal Hills. They were oppressed by the local police and the European officers engaged in the railway construction. Pushed out of their familiar habitat, the Santhals were forced to rely on the moneylenders for their subsistence. Soon they were trapped in a vicious circle of debt and extortion. Besides this, Santhals also felt neglected under the corrupt British administration and their inability to render justice to their legitimate grievances.

Outbreak

Around 1854 activities of social banditry led by a person named Bir Singh was reported from different places. These were directed against mahajans and traders.

Sidhu



Kanu

In 1855, two Santhal brothers Sidhu and Kanu proclaimed that they had received a divine message from the God, asking them to lead the rebellion.

By July 1855 the rebellion has taken the form of open insurrection against the mahajans, the zamindars and the British officials. They marched with bows, poisoned arrows, axes and swords taking over the Rajmahal and Bhagalpur by proclaiming that the Company rule was about to end. In response villages were raided and properties destroyed by the British. In 1855 an act was passed to regulate the territories occupied by the Santhals. The Act formed the territory into a separate division called Santhal Pargana division.

(c) Munda Rebellion

One of the prominent tribal rebellions of this period occurred in Ranchi, known as Ulugulan rebellion (Great Tumult).The Munda people were familiar with the co-operative or collective farming known as *Khuntkatti* (joint holding) land system. It was totally eroded by the introduction of private ownership of land and the intrusion of merchants and moneylenders. The Munda people were also forcefully recruited as indentured labourers to work on plantations. In the 1890s tribal chiefs offered resistance against the alienation of tribal people from their land and imposition of *bethbegari* or forced labour.

The movement received an impetus when Birsa Munda declared himself as the messenger of God. Birsa claimed that he had a prophecy and promised supernatural solutions to the problem of Munda people and the establishment of *Birsaite* Raj. The Munda leaders utilised the cult of Birsa Munda to recruit more people to their cause. A series of night meetings were held and a revolt was planned. On the Christmas day of 1889, they resorted to violence. Buildings were burnt down and arrows were shot at Christian missionaries and Munda Christian converts. Soon police stations and government officials were attacked. Similar attacks were carried out over the next few months. Finally the resistance was crushed and Birsa Munda was arrested in February 1900 who later died in jail. Birsa

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Munda became a folk hero who is to this day celebrated in many folk songs. The Munda rebellion prompted the British to formulate a policy on Tribal land. The Chotanagpur Tenancy Act (1908) restricted the entry of non-tribal people into the tribal land.

7.2 The Great Rebellion of 1857 (First War of Indian Independence)

In 1857, British rule witnessed the biggest challenge to its existence. Initially, it began as a mutiny of Bengal presidency sepoys but later expanded to the other parts of India involving a large number of civilians, especially peasants. The events of 1857–58 are significant for the following reasons:

1. This was the first major revolt of armed forces accompanied by civilian rebellion.
2. The revolt witnessed unprecedented violence, perpetrated by both sides.
3. The revolt ended the role of the East India Company and the governance of the Indian subcontinent was taken over by the British Crown.

(a) Causes

1. Annexation Policy of British India

In the 1840s and 1850s, more territories were annexed through two major policies:

The Doctrine of Paramountcy. British claimed themselves as paramount, exercising supreme authority. New territories were annexed on the grounds that the native rulers were inept.

The Doctrine of Lapse. If a native ruler did not have male heir to the throne, the territory was to 'lapse' into British India upon the death of the ruler. Satara, Sambalpur, parts of the Punjab, Jhansi and Nagpur were annexed by the British through the Doctrine of Lapse.

2. Insensitivity to Indian Cultural Sentiments

In 1806 the sepoys at Vellore mutinied against the new dress code, which prohibited Indians from wearing religious marks on their foreheads and having whiskers on their chin, while proposing to replace their turbans with a round hat. It was feared that the dress code was part of their effort to convert soldiers to Christianity.

Similarly, in 1824, the sepoys at Barrackpur near Calcutta refused to go to Burma by sea, since crossing the sea meant the loss of their caste.

The sepoys were also upset with discrimination in salary and promotion. Indian sepoys were paid much less than their European counterparts. They felt humiliated and racially abused by their seniors.

(b) The Revolt

The precursor to the revolt was the circulation of rumors about the cartridges of the new Enfield rifle. There was strong suspicion that the new cartridges had been greased with cow and pig fat. The cartridge had to be bitten off before loading (pork is forbidden to the Muslims and the cow is sacred to a large section of Hindus).

On 29 March a sepoy named Mangal Pandey assaulted his European officer. His fellow soldiers refused to arrest him when ordered to do so. Mangal Pandey along with others were court-martialled and hanged. This only fuelled the anger and in the following days there were increasing incidents of disobedience. Burning and arson were reported from the army cantonments in Ambala, Lucknow, and Meerut.

Bahadur Shah Proclaimed as Emperor of Hindustan

On 11 may 1857 a band of sepoys from Meerut marched to the Red Fort in Delhi. The *sepoys* were followed by an equally exuberant crowd who gathered to ask the Mughal

Bahadur Shah II

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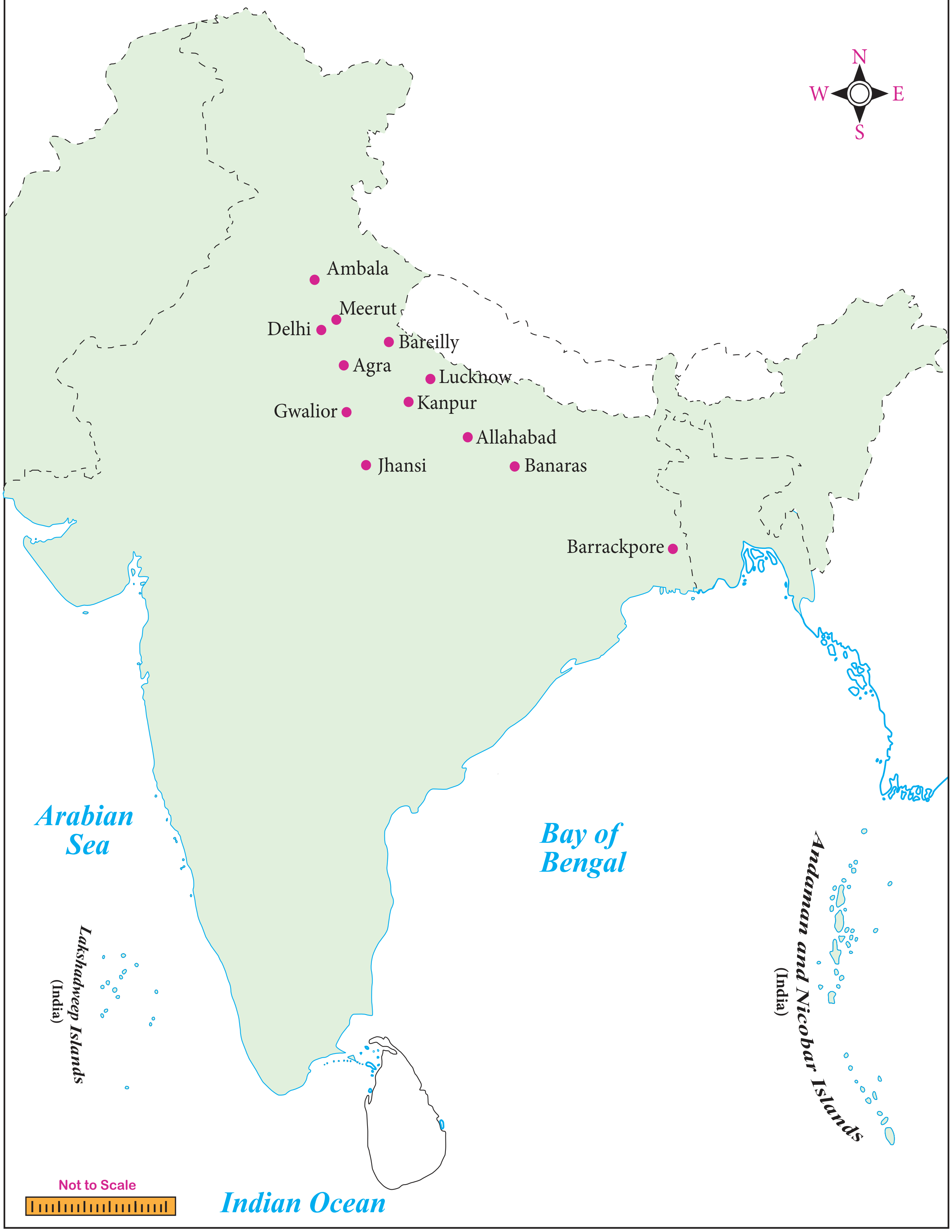
Important Centres of Great Rebellion (First War of Indian Independence) - 1857



Emperor Bahadur Shah II to become their leader. After much hesitation he accepted the offer and was proclaimed as the Shahenshah-e-Hindustan (the Emperor of Hindustan). Soon the rebels captured the north-western province and Awadh. As the news of the fall of Delhi reached the Ganges valley, cantonment after cantonment mutinied till, by the beginning of June, British rule in North India, except in Punjab and Bengal, had disappeared.

Civil Rebellion

The mutiny was equally supported by an aggrieved rural society of north India. Sepoys working in the British army were in fact peasants in uniform. They were equally affected by the restructuring of the revenue administration. The sepoy revolt and the subsequent civil rebellion in various parts of India had a deep-rooted connection with rural mass. The first civil rebellion broke out in parts of the North-Western provinces and Oudh. These were the two regions from which the *sepoys* were predominately recruited. A large number of Zamindars and Taluqdars were also attracted to the rebellions as they had lost their various privileges under the British government. The talukdar–peasant collective was a common effort to recover what they had lost. Similarly, artisans and handicrafts persons were equally affected by the dethroning of rulers of many Indian states, who were a major source of patronage. The dumping of British manufactures had ruined the Indian handicrafts and thrown thousands of weavers out of employment. Collective anger against the British took the form of a people's revolt.

Prominent Fighters against the British

The mutiny provided a platform to aggrieved kings, nawabs, queens, and zamindars to express the anti-British anger. Nana Sahib, the adopted son of the last Peshwa Baji Rao II, provided leadership in he Kanpur region. He had been denied pension by the Company. Similarly, Begum Hazrat Mahal in Lucknow and Khan Bahadur in Bareilly took the command of their respective territories, which were once ruled either by them or by their ancestors.

Another such significant leader was Rani Lakshmi Bai, who assumed the leadership in Jhansi. In her case Dalhousie, the Governor General of Bengal had refused her request to adopt a son as her successor after her husband died and the kingdom was annexed under the Doctrine of Lapse. Rani Lakshmi Bai battled the mighty British Army until she was defeated.

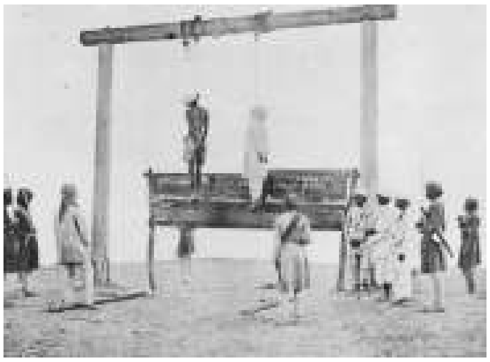
Bahadur Shah Jafar, Kunwar Singh, Khan Bahadur, Rani Lakshmi Bai and many others were rebels against their will, compelled by the bravery of the sepoys who had defied the British authority.

(c) Suppression of Rebellion

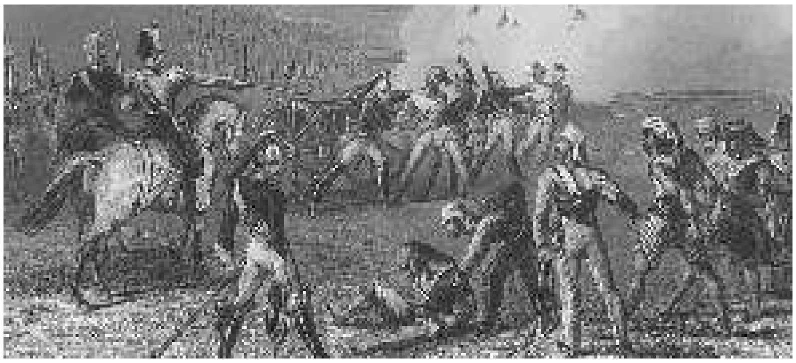
By the beginning of June 1857, the Delhi, Meerut, Rohilkhand, Agra, Allahabad and Banaras divisions of the army had been restored to British control and placed under martial law.

(d) Causes of Failure

There is hardly any evidence to prove that the rebellion of 1857 was organised and planned. It was spontaneous. However, soon



Hanging the rebels in a public place



Blowing mutinous sepoys from the guns

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after the siege of Delhi, there was an attempt to seek the support of the neighboring states. Besides a few Indian states, there was a general lack of enthusiasm among the Indian princes to participate in the rebellion. The Indian princes and zamindars either remained loyal or were fearful of British power. Those involved in the rebellion were left with either little or no sources of arms and ammunition. The emerging English-educated middle class too did not support the rebellion.

One of the important reasons for the failure of the rebellion was the absence of a central authority. There was no common agenda that united the individuals and the aspirations of the Indian princes and the various other feudal elements fighting against the British.

In the end, the rebellion was brutally suppressed by the British army. The rebel leaders were defeated due to the lack of weapons, organisation, discipline, and betrayal by their aides. Delhi was captured by the British troops in late 1857. Bahadur Shah was captured and transported to Burma.

e) India Becomes a Crown Colony

The British Parliament adopted the Indian Government Act, in November 1858, and India was pronounced as one of the many crown colonies to be directly governed by the Parliament. The responsibility was given to a member of the cabinet, designated as the Secretary of State for India.

Changes in the Administration

British rule and its policies underwent a major overhaul after 1857. British followed a cautious approach to the issue of social reform. Queen Victoria proclaimed to the Indian people that the British would not interfere in traditional institutions and religious matters. It was promised that Indians would be absorbed in government services. Two significant changes were made to the structure of the Indian army. The number of Indians was significantly reduced. Indians were restrained from holding important ranks and position. The British took control of the artillery and shifted their recruiting effort to regions and communities that remained loyal during 1857. For instance, the British turned away from Rajputs, Brahmins and North Indian Muslims and looked towards non-Hindu groups like the Gorkhas, Sikhs,and Pathans. British also exploited the caste, religious, linguistic and regional differences in the Indian society through what came to be known as "Divide and Rule" policy.

7.3 Peasant Revolts under Crown

(a) Indigo Revolt 1859-60

Before synthetic dyes were created, natural indigo dye was highly valued by cloth makers around the world. Many Europeans employed peasants to grow the indigo, which was processed into dye at the planters factories. The dye was then exported to Europe. The peasants were forced to grow the crop. The British planter gave the cultivator a cash advance to help pay for the rent of the land and other costs. This advance needed to be repaid with interest. The planters forced the peasant grow indigo, rather than food crops. At the end of the season, the planters paid the cultivators low prices for their indigo. Moreover, the small amount the peasant earned was not enough to pay back the cash advance with interest. So they fell into debt. However, the peasants again would be forced to enter into another contract to grow indigo. The peasants were never able to clear their debts. Debts were often passed from father to son.

The Indigo Revolt began in 1859. The rebellion began as a strike, as the peasants of a village in Bengal's Nadia district refused to grow any more indigo. The movement quickly spread to the other indigo-growing districts of Bengal. The revolt then turned violent. The peasants, both Hindu and Muslim, participated in the revolt, and women—armed with pots and pans—fought alongside the men. Indian journalists in Calcutta wrote articles about the brutality of the planters. The 1860 play

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Nil Darpan ("Mirror of the Indigo") by Dina Bandhu Mitra, did much to draw attention in India and Europe to the plight of the indigo growers.

(b) Deccan Riots 1875

Heavy taxation ruined agriculture. Famine deaths increased. The first recorded incident of rioting against the moneylenders in the Deccan was in May 1875, in Supa a village near Poona. Similar cases of riots were reported from close to 30 villages in Poona and Ahmadnagar. The rioting was directed mostly at the Gujarat moneylenders. Under British rule peasants were forced to pay revenue directly to the government. Also, under a new law moneylenders were allowed to attach the mortgaged land of the defaulters and auction it off. This resulted in a transfer of lands from the cultivators to the non-cultivating classes. Trapped in the vicious cycle of debt and unable to pay the outstanding amount the peasant was forced to abandon cultivation.

7.4 The Foundation of Indian National Congress (1870 – 1885)

(a) Rise of Nationalism

The second half of the 19th century saw the emergence of national political consciousness among a new social class of English educated Indians. The Indian intelligentsia played a critical role in generating a national consciousness by exposing a large number of people to the idea of nation, nationalism and various democratic aspirations. The flourishing of print media both in the vernacular and in English played a significant role in circulating such ideas.

Even though they were numerically small they had a national character and capacity to establish contacts on an all India scale. They were working as lawyers, journalists, government employees, teachers or doctors. They took the initiative to float political outfits, such as Madras Native Association (1852) East India Association (1866), Madras Mahajana Sabha (1884), Poona Sarvajanik Sabha (1870), The Bombay Presidency Association (1885) and many others.

(b) Economic Critique of Colonialism

One of the most significant contributions of early Indian nationalists was the formulation of an economic critique of colonialism.

Dadabhai Naoroji, Justice Ranade, and Romesh Chandra Dutt, played a significant role in making this criticism about colonial economy. They clearly understood that the prosperity of the British lay in the economic and political subjugation of India. They concluded that colonialism was the main obstacle to the Indian's economic development.

(c) Objectives and Methods

A.O. Hume

The formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885 was intended to establish an all India organisation. It was the culmination of attempts by groups of educated Indians politically active in three presidencies: Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. A.O. Hume lent his services to facilitate the formation of the Congress. Womash Chandra Banarjee was the first President (1885) Indian National Congress.

The first session of the Indian National Congress was held on 28 December 1885. The early objectives were to develop and consolidate sentiments of national unity; but also professed loyalty to Britain. The techniques included appeals, petitions and delegations to Britain, all done within a constitutional framework. Some of the key demands were the following:

- creation of legislative councils at provincial and central level
- increasing the number of elected members in the legislative council
- separating judicial and executive functions
- reducing military expenditure
- reduction of Home Charges

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- extension of trial by jury
- holding civil services exams in India as well as in England.
- police reforms
- reconsideration of forest laws
- promotion of Indian industries and an end to unfair tariffs and excise duties.

(d) Militant Nationalism

The methods of moderate leaders failed to yield any substantive change in the British attitude towards the moderate demands of early Indian nationalists. They were criticised by a group of leaders known as "extremists". Instead of prayers and petitions, these militants were more focused on self-help.

7.5 Partition of Bengal

Lord Curzon

Partition of Bengal in 1905 was the most unpopular of all. The partition led to widespread protests all across India, starting a new phase of the Indian national movement.

The idea of partition was devised to suppress the political activities against the British rule in Bengal by creating a Hindu-Muslim divide.

(a) Hindu–Muslim Divide

It was openly stated that the objective of partition was to curtail Bengali influence and weaken the nationalist movement. By placing Bengal under two administrative units Curzon reduced the Bengali - speaking people to a linguistic minority in a divided Bengal. Curzon assured Muslims that in the new province of East Bengal Muslims would enjoy a unity, which they never enjoyed since the days of the Mughals.

Instead of dividing the Bengali people along the religious line partition united them. The growth of regional language newspapers played a role in building a sense of proud Bengali identity.

(b) Anti- Partition Movement

With the failure to annul the partition moderate leaders were forced to rethink their strategy and look for new techniques of protest. The boycott of British goods was one such method. However, the agenda of Swadeshi Movement was still restricted to secure an annulment of partition and the moderates were very much against utilising the campaign to start a full-fledged passive resistance. The militant nationalists, on the other hand, were in favour of extending the movement beyond Bengal and to initiate a full-scale mass struggle.

The day Bengal was officially partitioned – 16 Oct 1905 – was declared as a day of mourning. Thousands of people took bath in the Ganga and marched on the streets of Calcutta singing Bande Mataram.

(c) Boycott and Swadeshi Movement in Bengal (1905–1911)

Boycott and swadeshi were always interlinked to each other and part of the wider plan to make India self-sufficient. Four major trends can be discerned during the Swadeshi Movement in Bengal.

1. The Moderate Trend
2. Constructive Swadeshi
3. Militant Nationalism
4. Revolutionary terrorism

Swadeshi Movement

Constructive Swadeshi

The constructive programmes largely stressed upon self-help. It focused on building

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alternative institutions of self-governance that would operate free of British control. Swadeshi shops sprang all over the place selling textiles, handlooms, soaps, earthenware, match and leather goods.

Passive Resistance

From 1906 the Swadeshi Movement took a turn. Under this new direction, the swadeshi programme included four points: boycott of foreign goods, boycott of government schools and colleges, courts, titles and government services, development of Swadeshi industries, national schools, recourse to armed struggle if British repression went beyond the limits of endurance.

Militant Nationalism

Lala Lajpat Rai of Punjab, Bala Gangadhar Tilak of Maharashtra and Bipin Chandra Pal of Bengal were three prominent leaders during the Swadeshi period and were referred to as Lal-Bal-Pal triumvirate. Punjab, Bengal, and Maharashtra emerged as the hotbed of militant nationalism during the Swadeshi Movement. In South India Tuticorin became the most important location of Swadeshi activity with the launch of a Swadeshi Steam Navigation company by V.O. Chidambaranar.

Lal-Bal-Pal

Swaraj or Political Independence

One of the common goals of the extremist leaders was to achieve *Swaraj* or Self Rule. However, the leaders differed on the meaning of *Swaraj*. For Tilak *Swaraj* was the attainment of complete autonomy and total freedom from foreign rule.

7.6 Home Rule Movement (1916–1918)

The Indian national movement was revived and also radicalised during the Home Rule Movement (1916-1918), led by Lokamanya Tilak and Annie Besant. World War I and Indian's participation in it was the background for the Home Rule League. When Britain declared war against Germany in 1914, the moderate and liberal leadership extended their support to the British cause. It was hoped that, in return, the British government would give self-government after the war. Indian troops were sent to several theatres of World War. But the British administration remained non-committal to such goals. What was seen as a British betrayal to the Indian cause of self-government led to a fresh call for a mass movement to pressurise the British government.

(a) Objectives of the Home Rule Movement

- To attain self-government within the British Empire by using constitutional means.
- To obtain the status of dominion, a political position accorded later to Australia, Canada, South Africa, and New Zealand.
- To use non-violent constitutional methods to achieve their goals.

(b) Lucknow Pact (1916)

The Home Rule Movement and the subsequent reunion of moderate and the

Signatories of Lucknow Pact

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militant nationalists opened the possibility of fresh talks with the Muslims. Under the Lucknow Pact (1916), the Congress and the Muslim League agreed that there should be self-government in India as soon as possible. In return, the Congress leadership accepted the concept of separate electorate for Muslims.

(c) British Response

As the demand for Swaraj was raised by Tilak and Annie Besant that gained popularity, the British used the same old ploy to isolate the leaders by repressing their activities.

In 1919 the British government announced the Montagu-Chelmsford reforms which promised gradual progress of India towards self-government. This caused deep disappointment to Indian nationalists. In a further blow the government enacted what was called the Rowlatt Act which provided for arbitrary arrest and strict punishment.

SUMMARY

- The latter half of nineteenth century British India was replete with revolts of peasants and tribals against colonial political and economic domination.
- The great rebellion of 1857 was the culmination of various anti-British tendencies led by the depossessed feudal chieftains with an agenda to restore the Pre-colonial order.
- Even though the leaders of the Revolt lacked vision and were guided by local ambitions, it was a progressive act in terms of their effort to resist and challenge a despotic alien government.
- The Indian National Movement, building public opinion against the exploitative and oppressive British rule, inspired the younger generation to become part of the future militant anti-colonial struggles.
- The Swadeshi Movement helped to enhance the participation of masses in nationalist politics.

A-Z GLOSSARY

orchestrated	organized to achieve a desired effect	நினைத்ததை நிறைவேற்ற போடப்பட்ட திட்டம்
clandestine	secret	இரகசிய
restorative	re-establishing	மீட்கின்ற
subletting	property leased by one lessee to another	கீழ்க்குத்தகைக்கு விடுதல், உள் குத்தகைக்கு விடுதல்
egalitarian	equal rights for all people	அனைத்து மக்களுக்கும் சமமான
coercive	forcible	வலுக்கட்டாயமாக
extortion	the practice of taking something from an unwilling person by physical force	தாக்குதல் மூலம் பணம், பொருள் பறித்தல்
disgruntled	dissatisfied, frustrated	நிறைவில்லாத, திருப்தியற்ற
abysmal	extremely bad, deep and bottomless	மிக மோசமான, படுபாதாளமான

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EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. Which one of the following was launched by Haji Shariatullah in 1818 in East Bengal?
   a) Wahhabi Rebellion
   b) Farazi Movement
   c) Tribal uprising
   d) Kol Revolt
2. Who declared that "Land belongs to God" and collecting rent or tax on it was against divine law?
   a) Titu Mir b) Sidhu
   c) Dudu Mian d) Shariatullah
3. Who were driven out of their homeland during the process of creation of Zamins under Permanent Settlement?
   a) Santhals b) Titu Mir
   c) Munda d) Kol
4. Find out the militant nationalist from the following.
   a) Dadabhai Naoroji
   b) Justice Govind Ranade
   c) Bipin Chandra pal
   d) Romesh Chandra
5. When did the Partition of Bengal come into effect?
   a) 19 June 1905
   b) 18 July 1906
   c) 19 August 1907
   d) 16 October 1905
6. What was the context in which the Chotanagpur Tenancy Act was passed?
   a) Kol Revolt b) Indigo Revolt
   c) Munda Rebellion d) Deccan Riots
7. Who set up the first Home Rule League in April 1916?
   a) Annie Basant
   b) Bipin Chandra Pal
   c) Lala Lajpat Rai
   d) Tilak
8. Who drew the attention of the British to the suffering of Indigo cultivation through his play *Nil darpan?*
   a) Dina Bandhu Mitra
   b) Romesh Chandra Dutt
   c) Dadabhai Naoroji
   d) Birsa Munda

II Fill in the blanks

1. ____________ was an anti–imperial and anti-landlord movement which originated in and around 1827.
2. The major tribal revolt which took place in Chotanagpur region was ____________.
3. Chota Nagpur Act was passed in the year ____________.
4. Womash Chandra Bannerjee was elected the president of Indian National Congress in the year ____________.

III Choose the correct statement

1. (i) The Company received ₹ 22.5 million from Mir Jafar and invested it to propel the industrial revolution in Britain.
   (ii) Kols organized an insurrection in 1831-1832, which was directed against government officers and moneylenders.
   (iii) In 1855, two Santhal brothers, Sidhu and Kanu, led the Santhal Rebellion.
   (iv) In 1879, an Act was passed to regulate the territories occupied by the Santhals.
   a) (i), (ii) and (iii) are correct
   b) (ii) and (iii) are correct
   c) (iii) and (iv) are correct
   d) (i) and (iv) are correct

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2. (i) One of the most significant contributions of the early Indian Nationalists was the formulation of an economic critique of colonialism.
   (ii) The early Congress leaders stated that the religious exploitation in India was the primary reason for the growing poverty.
   (iii) One of the goals of the moderate Congress leaders was to achieve Swaraj or self-rule.
   (iv) The objective of Partition of Bengal was to curtail the Bengali influence and weaken the nationalist movement.
   a) (i) and (iii) are correct
   b) (i), (iii), and (iv) are correct
   c) (ii) and (iii) are correct
   d) (iii) and (iv) are correct
3. **Assersion (A)**: Under colonial rule, for the first time in Indian history, government claimed a direct proprietary right over forests.
   Reason (R): Planters used intimidation and violence to compel farmers to grow indigo.
   a) Both (A) and (R) are correct, but R is not the correct explanation of A
   b) Both (A) and (R) are wrong
   c) Both (A) and (R) are correct and R is the correct explanation of A
   d) (A) is wrong and (R) is correct
4. **Assersion (A)**: The Revolt of 1857 was brutally suppressed by the British army.
   Reason (R): The failure of the rebellion was due to the absence of Central authority.
   a) Both (A) and (R) are wrong
   b) (A) is wrong and (R) is correct
   c) Both (A) and (R) are correct and R is the correct explanation of A
   d) Both (A) and (R) are correct, but R is not the correct explanation of A

IV. Match the following

1.	Wahhabi Rebellion	-	Lucknow
2.	Munda Rebellion	-	Peshwa Baji Rao II
3.	Begum Hazarat Mahal	-	Titu Mir
4.	Nana Sahib	-	Ranchi

V Answer the following questions briefly

1. How are the peasant uprisings in British India classified?
2. Name the territories annexed by the British under the Doctrine of Lapse.
3. What do you mean by drain of wealth?
4. Highlight the objectives of Home Rule Movement.
5. Summarise the essence of Lucknow Pact.

VI Answer in detail

1. Discuss the causes of the Revolt of 1857?
2. How did the people of Bengal respond to the Partition of Bengal (1905)?

VII Activity

1. Identify the Acts passed in British India from 1858 to 1919, with a brief note on each.
2. Mark the important centres of 1857 Revolt on an outline map.
3. Prepare an album with pictures of frontline leaders of all the anti-colonial struggles launched against the British.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

1. https//www.brittanica.com

ICT CORNER

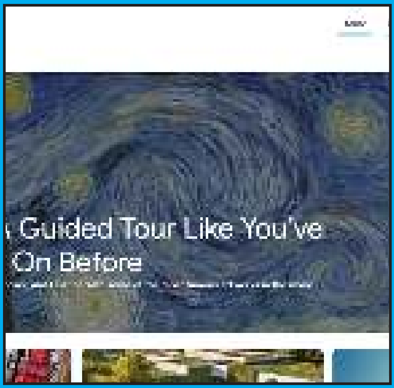
Anti-Colonial Movements and the Birth of Nationalism

Through this activity you will visualize the Great Rebellion of 1857

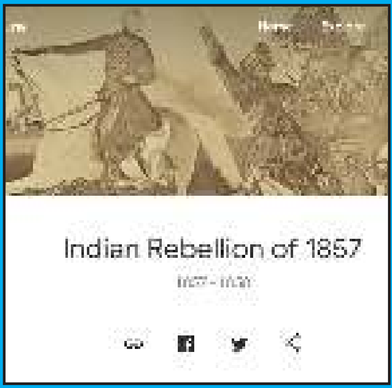
Step-1 Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.

Step-2 Type ‘Rebellion of 1857’ into search box

Step-3 Scroll down and click explore the picture collections



Step-1



Step-2

Step-3

Website URL:

https://artsandculture.google.com/

* Pictures are indicatives only.

* If browser requires, allow Flash Player or Java Script to load the page

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Unit - 8

Nationalism: Gandhian Phase

Learning Objectives

SW80Y

To acquaint ourselves with

- Gandhian phase of India's struggle for independence
- Gandhi's policy of ahimsa and satyagraha tried and tested for mobilisation of the masses in India
- Non-violent struggles in Champaran and against the Rowlatt Act
- The Non-Cooperation Movement and its fallout
- Emergence of radicals and revolutionaries and their part in the freedom movement
- Launch of Civil Disobedience Movement
- Issue of separate electorate and the signing of Poona Pact
- First Congress Ministries in the provinces and circumstances leading to the launch of Quit India Movement
- Communalism leading to partition of sub-continent into India and Pakistan

Introduction

Mahatma Gandhi arrived in India in 1915 from South Africa after fighting for the civil rights of the Indians there for about twenty years. He brought with him a new impulse to Indian politics. He introduced satyagraha, which he had perfected in South Africa, that could be practiced by men and women, young and old. As a person dedicated to the cause of the poorest of the poor, he instantly gained the goodwill of the masses. In this lesson we shall see how Gandhi transformed the Indian National Movement.

8.1 Gandhi and Mass Nationalism

(a) Evolution of Gandhi

Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi was born on 2 October 1869 into a well to do family in Porbandar, Gujarat. His father Kaba Gandhi was the Diwan of Porbandar and later became the Diwan of Rajkot. His mother Putlibai, influenced the young Gandhi. After passing the matriculation examination, Gandhi sailed to England in 1888 to study law. After becoming a barrister in June 1891 Gandhi returned to India as a firm believer in British sense of justice and fair play.

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On returning to India, Gandhi's attempt to practice in Bombay failed. It was during this time that a Gujarati firm in South Africa, sought the services of Gandhi for assistance in a law-suit. Gandhi accepted the offer and left for South Africa in April 1893. Gandhi faced racial discrimination for the first time in South Africa. On his journey from Durban to Pretoria, at the Pietermaritzburg railway station, he was physically thrown out of the first class compartment. Gandhi was determined to fight.

Gandhi called a meeting of the Indians in the Transvaal and exhorted them to form an association to seek redress of their grievances. He continued to hold such meetings, petitioned to the authorities about the injustices which were in violation of their own laws. Indians in the Transvaal had to pay a poll tax of £ 3, could not own land except in areas marked for them, and could not move outdoors after 9 p.m. without a permit. He launched a struggle against such unjust laws.

Gandhi was introduced to the works of Tolstoy and John Ruskin. He was deeply influenced by Tolstoy's *The Kingdom of God is Within You*, Ruskin's *Unto this Last* and Thoreau's *Civil Disobedience*. Gandhi's ideas were formed due to a blend of Indian and Western thought. Despite being deeply influenced by Western thinkers he was highly critical of Western civilisation and industrialisation. Inspired by Ruskin, Gandhi established the Phoenix Settlement (1905) and the Tolstoy Farm (1910). Equality, community living and dignity of labour were inculcated in these settlements. They were training grounds for the satyagrahis.

Satyagraha as a Strategy in South Africa

Gandhi developed satyagraha (devotion to the truth, truth-force) as a strategy, in which campaigners went on peaceful marches and presented themselves for arrest in protest against unjust laws. He experimented with it for fighting the issues of immigration and racial discrimination. Meetings were held and registration offices of immigrants were picketed. Even when the police let loose violence no resistance was offered by the satyagrahis. Gandhi and other leaders were arrested. Indians, mostly indentured labourers turned hawkers continued the struggle despite police brutality. Finally, by the Smuts-Gandhi Agreement the poll tax on indentured labourers was abolished.

8.2 Gandhi's Early Satyagrahas in India

Gandhi regarded Gopal Krishna Gokhale, whom he had met on previous visits to India, as his political guru. On his advice, Gandhi travelled the length and breadth of the country before plunging into politics. This enabled him to understand the conditions of the people. It is on one of these journeys through Tamil Nadu that Gandhi decided to discard his following robes and wear a simple dhoti.

(a) Champaran Satyagraha

In Champaran in Bihar the *tinkathia* system was practiced. Under this exploitative system the peasants were forced by the European planters to cultivate indigo on three-twentieths of their land holdings. Towards the end of nineteenth century German synthetic dyes had forced indigo out of the market. The European planters of Champaran, while realising the necessity of relieving the cultivators of the obligation of cultivating indigo, wanted to turn the situation to their advantage. They enhanced the rent and collected illegal dues as a price for the release of cultivators from the obligation. Resistance erupted. Rajkumar Shukla, an agriculturist from Champaran who suffered hardships of the

Champaran Satyagraha

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system, prevailed on Gandhi to visit Champaran. On reaching Chamaparan, Gandhi was asked by the police to leave immediately. When he refused he was summoned for trial. The news spread like wild fire and thousands swarmed the place in support of Gandhi. According to Gandhi, "The country thus had its first object-lesson in Civil Disobedience". He was assisted by Brajkishore Prasad, a lawyer by profession, and Rajendra Prasad, who became the first President of independent India. The Lieutenant Governor eventually formed a committee with Gandhi as a member which recommended the abolition of the *tinkathia* system, thereby ending the oppression of the peasants by the Indigo Planters.

The success of Champaran satyagraha, followed by his fruitful intervention in Ahmedabad mill strike (1918) and the Kheda Satyagraha (1918) helped Gandhi establish himself as a leader of mass struggle. Unlike earlier leaders, Gandhi demonstrated his ability to mobilise the common people across the country.

(b) Rowlatt Satyagraha and Jallianwala Bagh Massacre

The Government of India Act 1919, however, caused disappointment, as it did not transfer real power to the Indians. Besides, the government began to enforce the permanent extension of war time restrictions. The Rowlatt Act was enacted which provided for excessive police powers, arrest without warrant and detention without trial. Gandhi called it a 'Black Act' and in protest called for a nation-wide satyagraha on 6 April 1919. It was to be a non-violent struggle with fasting and prayer, and it was the earliest anti-colonial struggle spread across the country. The anti-Rowlatt protest was intense in Punjab, especially in Amritsar and Lahore. Gandhi was arrested and prevented from visiting Punjab. On 9 April two prominent local leaders Dr. Saifuddin Kitchlew and Dr. Satyapal were arrested in Amritsar.

General Dyer's Brutality

On 13 April 1919 a public meeting was arranged at Jallianwala Bagh in Amritsar. As it happened to be Baisaki day (spring harvest festival of Sikhs) the villagers had assembled there in thousands. General Reginald Dyer, on hearing of the assemblage, surrounded the place with his troops and an armoured vehicle. The only entrance to the park that was surrounded on all sides by high walls was blocked, and firing took place without any warning. The firing lasted for ten minutes till the troops ran out of ammunition. According to official report 379 were killed and more than thousand injured. Unofficial estimates put the toll at more than a thousand. After the incident martial law was declared and many people in the Punjab especially Amritsar were flogged and forced to crawl on the streets. The brutality enraged Indians. Rabindranath Tagore returned his knighthood. Gandhi surrendered his Kaiser-i-Hind medal.

(c) Khilafat Movement

The First World War came to an end in 1918. The Caliph of Turkey, who was considered the head of Muslims of the world, was given a harsh treatment. A movement was started called Khilafat Movement led by the Ali brothers, Maulana Mohamed Ali and Maulana Shaukat Ali. Gandhi supported the movement and saw in it an opportunity to unite Hindus and Muslims. He presided over the All India Khilafat Conference held at Delhi in November 1919. Gandhi supported Shaukat Ali's proposal of three national slogans, Allaho Akbar, Bande Mataram and Hindu-Musslamanki Jai. The Khilafat Committee meeting in Allahabad on 9 June 1920 adopted Gandhi's non-violent non-cooperation programme. Non-Cooperation was to begin on 1 August 1920.

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8.3 Non-Cooperation Movement and Its Fallout

The Indian National Congress approved the non-cooperation movement in a special session held in Calcutta on September 1920. It was subsequently passed in the Nagpur Session held on December 1920, Chaired by Salem C.Vijayaraghavachariar. The programme of non-cooperation included:

1. Surrender of all titles of honours and honorary offices.
2. Non-participation in government functions.
3. Suspension of practice by lawyers, and settlement of court disputes by private arbitration.
4. Boycott of government schools by children and parents.
5. Boycott of the legislature created under the 1919 Act.
6. Non-participation in government parties and other official functions.
7. Refusal to accept any civil or military post.
8. Boycott of foreign goods and spreading the doctrine of Swadeshi.

(a) No-Tax Campaign and Chauri Chaura Incident

Gandhi announced a no-tax campaign in Bardoli in February 1922. These movements greatly enhanced Gandhi's reputation as a national leader, especially the peasants. Gandhi made a nation-wide tour. Wherever he visited there was a bonfire of foreign cloth. Thousands left government jobs, students gave up their studies in large numbers and the lawyers gave up thriving practices. Boycott of British goods and institutions were effective. The boycott of the Prince of Wales' visit to India was successful.

On 5 February 1922 a procession of the nationalists in Chauri Chaura, a village near Gorakhpur in present-day Uttar Pradesh provoked by the police turned violent. The police finding themselves outnumbered shut themselves inside the police station. The mob burnt the police station 22 policemen lost their lives. Gandhi immediately withdrew the movement.

(b) Swarajists

Meanwhile Congress was divided into two groups viz. pro-changers and no-changers. Some of the Congressmen led by Motilal Nehru and C.R. Das wanted to contest the elections and enter the legislature. They argued that the national interest could be promoted by working in the Legislative Councils under Dyarchy and wrecking the colonial government within. They were called the pro-changers. Staunch followers of Gandhi like Vallabhbhai Patel, C. Rajaji and others, known as no-changers, wanted to continue non-cooperation with the government. Despite the opposition C.R. Das and Motilal Nehru formed the Swaraj Party on 1 January 1923, which was later approved by a special session of the Congress. Swaraj Party members were elected in large numbers to the Imperial Legislative Assembly and the various Provincial Legislative Councils. They effectively

C.R. Das

Motilal Nehru

Dyarchy, a system of dual government introduced under the Government of India Act 1919, divided the powers of the provincial government into Reserved and Transferred subjects. The Reserved Subjects comprising finance, defence, the police, justice, land revenue, and irrigation were in the hands of the British. The Transferred Subjects that included local self-government, education, public health, public works, agriculture, forests and fisheries were left under the control of Indian ministers. The system ended with the introduction of provincial autonomy in 1935.

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used the legislature as a platform for propagation of nationalist ideas. In Bengal, they refused to take charge of transferred subjects, as they did not want to cooperate with the government. They exposed the true nature of the colonial government. However, the Swaraj Party began to decline after the death of its leader C.R. Das in 1925.

(c) Constructive Programme of Gandhi

After the Chauri Chaura incident, Gandhi felt that the volunteers and the people had to be trained for a non-violent struggle. As a part of this effort he focused on promoting Khadi, Hindu-Muslim unity and the abolition of untouchability. He exhorted the Congressmen, "Go throughout your districts and spread the message of Khaddar, the message of Hindu-Muslim unity, the message of anti-untouchability and take up in hand the youth of the country and make them the real soldiers of Swaraj." He made it compulsory for all Congress members to wear khaddar. The All India Spinner's Association was formed.

(d) Boycott of Simon Commission

On 8 November 1927, the British Government announced the appointment of the Indian Statutory Commission. Composed of seven members headed by Sir John Simon it came to be widely known as the Simon Commission. It was an all-white commission with no Indian member. Indians were angered that they had been denied the right to decide their own constitution. All sections of India including the Congress and the Muslim League decided to boycott the commission. Wherever

"Go back Simon" Demonstration

the Commission went there were protests, and black flag marches with the slogan 'Go Back Simon'. The protesters were brutally assaulted by the police. In one such assault in Lahore, Lal Lajpat Rai was seriously injured and died a few days later.

(e) Nehru Report

The Simon boycott united the different political parties in India. An all party conference was held in 1928 with the objective to frame a constitution for India as an alternative to the Simon Commission proposals. A committee under the leadership of Motilal Nehru was formed to outline the principles on the basis of which the constitution was to be drafted. The committee's report, known as the Nehru Report, recommended,

- Dominion status for India.
- Elections of the Central Legislature and the Provincial Legislatures on the basis of joint and mixed electorates.
- Reservation of seats for Muslims in the Central Legislature and in provinces where they are in a minority and for the Hindus in North-West Frontier Province where they were in a minority.
- Provision of fundamental rights, and universal adult franchise.

Jinnah

Jinnah proposed an amendment to the reservation of seats in the Central Legislature. He demanded that one-third of the seats be reserved for Muslims. Tej Bahadur Sapru supported him and pleaded that it would make no big difference. However, it was defeated in the All Party Conference. Later he proposed a resolution which came to be known as Jinnah's Fourteen Points. However, it was also rejected. Jinnah who was hailed as Ambassador of Hindu–Muslim Unity thereafter changed his stand and began to espouse the cause of a separate nation for Muslims.

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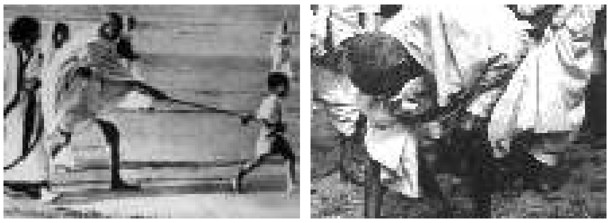
8.4 The Struggle for Poorna Swaraj and Launch of Civil Disobedience Movement

Meanwhile some congressmen were not satisfied with dominion status and wanted to demand complete independence. In the Congress session held in Lahore in December 1929 with Jawaharlal Nehru as the President, Poorna Swaraj was declared as the goal. It was also decided to boycott the Round Table Conference and launch a Civil Disobedience Movement. 26 January 1930 was declared as Independence Day and a pledge was taken all over the country to attain Poorna Swaraj non-violently through civil disobedience including non-payment of taxes. The Indian National Congress authorised Gandhi to launch the movement.

(a) Salt Satyagraha Movement

A charter of demands presented to the Viceroy Lord Irwin with an ultimatum to comply by 31 January 1930 included:

- Reduction of expenditure on army and civil services by 50%
- Introduction of total prohibition of liquor
- Release of all political prisoners
- Reduction of land revenue by 50%
- Abolition of salt tax.



Gandhiji's Dandi March

When the Viceroy did not respond to the charter of demands, Gandhi launched the Civil Disobedience Movement. The inclusion of abolition of salt tax was a brilliant tactical decision. At the break of dawn on 12 March 1930 Gandhi set out from Sabarmati Ashram with 78 of its inmates. The procession became larger and larger when hundreds joined them along the march. At the age of 61 Gandhi covered a distance of 241 miles in 24 days to reach Dandi at sunset on 5 April 1930. The next morning, he took a lump of salt breaking the salt law.

Salt Satyagraha in Provinces

In Tamil Nadu, C. Rajaji led a similar salt march from Tiruchirappalli to Vedaranyam. Salt marches took place in Kerala, Andhra and Bengal. In the North West Frontier Province Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan led the movement. He organized the Khudai Khidmatgar, also known as the Red Shirts.

Rajaji making salt in Vedaranyam

The British enacted the first forest act in 1865. This act restricted the access of the forest dwellers to the forest areas to collect firewood, cattle fodder and other minor forest produce such as honey, seeds, nuts, medicinal herbs. The Indian Forest Act of 1878 claimed that original ownership of forests was with the state. Waste lands and fallow lands were included as forest. Shifting cultivation practiced by, the tribal people, was prohibited. Alienation of forests from local control was stiffly resisted by the aggrieved adivasis (tribals) and the nationalists.

The most striking evidence of continuing struggles of the tribal groups was the one waged by Alluri Sitarama Raju in Rampa. Raju's efforts at fighting corrupt officials to protect the interests of Rampa tribals prompted the British to target his life. A special Malabar Police team was sent to quell the uprisings (1922-24) of Rampa Adivasis. Alluri Sitarama Raju attained martyrdom for the cause of forest dwellers.

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Gandhi was arrested at midnight and sent to Yeravada Jail. Jawaharlal Nehru, Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan and other leaders were swiftly arrested. Soon other forms of protests such as boycott of foreign cloth, picketing of liquor shops, non-payment of taxes, breaking of forest laws etc. were adopted. Women, peasants, tribals, students, even children and all sections participated in the nation-wide struggle. It was the biggest mass movement India had ever witnessed.

(b) Round Table Conferences

In the midst of the movement the First Round Table Conference was held at London in November 1930. Ramsay Macdonald, the British Prime Minister, proposed a federal government with provincial autonomy. The Congress did not attend it as its leaders were in jail. The Conference closed without any decision on the question.

(c) Gandhi-Irwin Pact

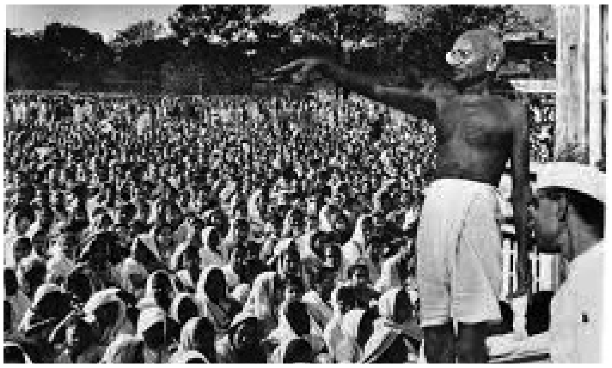
Lord Irwin held talks with Gandhi which resulted in the Gandhi–Irwin Pact on 5 March 1931. The British agreed to the demand of immediate release of all political prisoners not involved in violence, return of confiscated land and lenient treatment of government employees who had resigned. It also permitted the people of coastal villages to make salt for consumption and non-violent picketing. The Congress agreed to suspend the Civil Disobedience Movement and attend the conference. Gandhi attended the Second Round Table Conference which began on 7 September 1931. Gandhi refused to accept separate electorates for minorities. As a result, the second conference ended without any result.

Second Round Table Conference - London

(d) Renewal of Civil Disobedience Movement.

On returning to India, Gandhi revived the Civil Disobedience Movement. This time the government was prepared to meet the resistance. Martial law was enforced and Gandhi was arrested on 4 January 1932. Soon all the Congress leaders were arrested too. Protests and picketing by the people were suppressed with force.

In the meantime, the Third Round Table Conference was held from 17 November to 24 December 1932. The Congress did not participate in the conference as it had revived the Civil Disobedience Movement.



Call for Civil Disobedience

(e) Communal Award and Poona Pact

On 16 August 1932, Ramsay MacDonald, announced the Communal Award. It provided separate electorates to the minorities, viz. Muslims, Sikhs, Indian Christians, Anglo-Indians and women and the “depressed classes”. B.R. Ambedkar, the leader of the depressed classes, strongly argued for the separate electorate, as it, according to him, would give them political representation and power. On 20 September 1932, Gandhi went on a fast unto death against the separate electorates for the depressed classes. Madan Mohan Malaviya, Rajendra Prasad and others held talks with Ambedkar and M.C. Rajah the leaders of the depressed classes. After intense negotiations

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an agreement was arrived between Gandhi and Ambedkar. Known as the Poona Pact, its main terms were:

- The principle of separate electorates was abandoned. Instead, the principle of joint electorate was accepted with reservation of seats for the depressed classes.
- Reserved seats for the depressed classes were increased from 71 to 148. In the Central Legislature 18 percent of the seats were reserved.

(f) Campaign Against Untouchability

Gandhi devoted the next few years towards abolition of untouchability. His engagement with Dr. B.R. Ambedkar made a big impact on his ideas about the caste system. He shifted his base to the Satyagraha Ashram at Wardha. He undertook an all-India tour called the Harijan Tour. He started the Harijan Sevak Sangh to work for the removal of discriminations. He worked to promote education, cleanliness and hygiene and giving up of liquor among the depressed class. An important part of the campaign was the Temple Entry Movement. 8 January 1933 was observed as 'Temple Entry Day'.

Dr. B.R. Ambedkar

8.5 Beginnings of Socialist Movements

Inspired by the Russian Revolution of 1917 the Communist Party of India (CPI) was founded at Tashkent, Uzbekistan in October 1920. M.N. Roy, Abani Mukherjee, and M.P.T. Acharya were some of its founding members.The British government in India made vigorous efforts to suppress the communist movement by foisting a series of cases in the 1920s. In a further attempt to eliminate the threat of communism M.N. Roy, S.A. Dange, Muzaffar Ahmed, M. Singaravelar among others were arrested and tried in the Kanpur Conspiracy Case of 1924.

M.N. Roy

(a) Foundation of Communist Party

The communists used it as a platform to propagate their views and to expose the 'true colour of British rule in India'. In an attempt to form a party an All India Communist Conference was held at Kanpur in 1925. Singaravelar gave the Presidential Address. It led to the founding of the Communist Party of India in Indian soil. Their efforts eventually led to the establishment of the All India Workers' and Peasants' Party in 1928.

S.A. Dange

(b) Revolutionary Activities

The youths who were disillusioned with the sudden withdrawal of the Non Cooperation Movement by Gandhi took to violence. In 1924 Hindustan Republican Army (HRA) was formed in Kanpur to overthrow the colonial rule by an armed rebellion. In 1925 Ram Prasad Bismil, Ashfaqulla Khan and others held up a train carrying government money and looted in Kakori, a village near Lucknow. They were arrested and tried in the Kakori Conspiracy Case. Four of them were sentenced to death while the others were sentenced to imprisonment.

Bhagat Singh Rajguru Sukhdev

Bhagat Singh, Sukhdev and their comrades reorganized the HRA in Punjab. Influenced by socialist ideas they renamed it as Hindustan Socialist Republican Association in 1928. Sanders, a British police officer, responsible for

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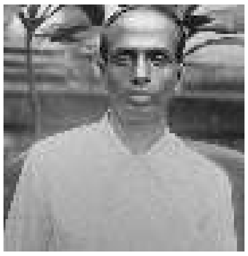
the lathi charge that led to Lala Lajpat Rai's death was assassinated. Bhagat Singh along with B.K. Dutt threw a smoke bomb inside the Central Legislative Assembly in 1929. They shouted 'Inquilab Zindabad' and 'Long Live the Proletariat'. He along with Rajguru was arrested and sentenced to death. Bhagat Singh's daring and courage fired the imagination of the youth across India, and he became popular across India.

In April 1930, the Chittagong Armoury Raid was carried out by Surya Sen and his associates. They captured the armories in Chittagong and proclaimed a provisional revolutionary government. They survived for three years raiding government institutions. In 1933 Surya Sen was caught and hanged after a year.



Surya Sen

(c) Left Movement in the 1930s

By the 1930s the Communist Party of India had gained strength in view of the economic crisis caused by world-wide Great Depression. Britain transmitted the effects of Depression to its colonies. The effects of Depression were reflected in decline in trade returns and fall in agricultural prices. The governmental measures included forcible collection of land revenue which in real terms had increased two-fold due to a 50% fall in agricultural prices, the withdrawal of money in circulation, retrenchment of staff and expenditure on developmental works.

Jayaprakash Narayan

Acharya Narendra Dev

Minoo Masani

In this context, the Communist Party, fighting for the cause of peasants and industrial workers hit by loss of income and wage reduction, and problems of unemployment gained influence and was therefore banned in 1934. The Congress, as a movement with a wide spectrum of political leanings, ranging from the extreme Left to the extreme Right, welded together by the goal of Swaraj, emerged as a powerful organisation. In 1934 the Congress Socialist Party was formed by Jayaprakash Narayan, Acharya Narendra Dev and Minoo Masani.

> 'Real Swaraj will come not by acquisition of authority by a few, but by the acquisition of the capacity by all to resist authority, when abused.' - M. K. Gandhi

8.6 First Congress Ministries under Government of India Act, 1935

The Government of India Act 1935 was one of the important positive outcomes of the Civil Disobedience Movement. The key features of the Act were provincial autonomy and dyarchy at the centre. The Act provided for an all India Federation with 11 provinces, 6 Chief commissioner's provinces and all those Princely states which wished to join the federation. The Act also provided autonomy to the provinces. All the subjects were transferred to the control of Indian ministers. Dyarchy that was in operation in provinces was now extended to the central government. The franchise, based on property, was extended though only about ten percent of the population enjoyed the right to vote. By this Act Burma was separated from India.

(a) Congress Ministries and their Work

The Government of India Act 1935 was implemented with the announcement of elections in 1937. The Congress immensely benefitted because of the Civil Disobedience Movement. The Congress called off its programme of boycott of legislature and contested elections. It emerged victorious in

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seven out of the eleven provinces. It formed ministries in 8 provinces – Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces, Orissa, Bihar, United Provinces, North West Frontier Province. In Assam it formed a coalition government with Assam Valley Muslim Party led by Sir Muhammad Sadullah. The Congress Ministries functioned as a popular government and responded to the needs of the people. The salaries of ministers were reduced from Rs. 2000 to Rs. 500 per month. Earlier action taken against nationalists were rescinded. They repealed the Acts which vested emergency powers in the government, lifted the ban imposed on political organisations except the Communist Party, and removed the restrictions on the nationalist press. Police powers were curbed and reporting by the CID on political speeches discontinued. Legislative measures were adopted for reducing indebtedness of the peasantry and improving the working conditions of the industrial labour. Temple entry legislation was passed. Special attention was paid to education and public health.

(b) Resignation of Congress Ministries

In 1939 the Second World War broke out. The colonial government of India entered the War on behalf of the Allies without consulting the Congress ministries. The Congress ministries resigned in protest. By 1940 he was demanding a separate state for the Muslims.

(c) National Movement during the Second World War, 1939–45

In 1939 Subhas Chandra Bose became the President of the Congress by defeating Pattabhi Sitaramayya, the candidate of Gandhi. When Gandhi refused to cooperate, Subhas Chandra Bose resigned his post and started the Forward Bloc.

Pattabhi Sitaramayya

8.7 Developments leading to Quit India Movement

(a) Individual Satyagraha

In August 1940 Viceroy Linlithgow made an offer in return for Congress' support for the war effort. Hence Gandhi declared limited satyagraha which would be offered by a few individuals. Vinobha Bhave was the first to offer satyagraha on 17 October 1940. The satyagraha continued till the end of the year. During this period more than 25,000 people were arrested.

Vinobha Bhave

(b) Cripps Mission

On 22 March 1942, the British government sent a mission under Cabinet Minister Sir Strafford Cripps. The negotiations between the Cripps Mission and the Congress failed as Britain was not willing to transfer effective power immediately. The Cripps Mission offered:

1. Grant of Dominion Status after the War
2. Indian Princes could sign a separate agreement with the British implying the acceptance for the demand of Pakistan.
3. British control of defence during the War.

Both the Congress and the Muslim League rejected the proposal. Gandhi called the proposals as a post-dated cheque on a crashing bank.

(c) "Do or Die" Call by Gandhi

The outcome of the Cripps Mission caused considerable disappointment. Popular discontent was intensified by war time shortages and steep rise in prices. The All India Congress Committee that met at Bombay on 8 August 1942 passed the famous Quit India Resolution demanding an immediate end to British rule in India. Gandhi gave a call to do or die. Gandhi said, 'We shall either free India or die in the

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attempt; we shall not live to see the perpetuation of our slavery." A non-violent mass struggle under Gandhi was to be launched. But early next morning on 9 August 1942 Gandhi and the entire Congress leadership was arrested.

(d) Role of Socialists

Aruna Asaf Ali

With Gandhi and other prominent leaders of the Congress in jail, the Socialists provided the leadership for the movement. Jayaprakash Narayan and Ramanand Misra escaped from prison and organised an underground movement. Women activists like Aruna Asaf Ali played a heroic role. Usha Mehta established Congress Radio underground which successfully functioned till November 1942.

(e) People's Response

As news spread to different parts of India, a spontaneous protest broke out everywhere. The people protested in whatever form that they could, such as hartals, strikes, picketing. The government suppressed it with brute force. People attacked government buildings, railway stations, telephone and telegraph lines and all that stood as symbols of British authority. This was particularly widespread in Madras. Parallel governments were established in Satara, Orissa, Bihar, United Provinces and Bengal.

(f) Subhas Chandra Bose and INA

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Subhas Chandra Bose who had left the Congress was now under house arrest. He wanted to strike British hard by joining its enemies. In March 1941, he made a dramatic escape from his house in disguise and reached Afghanistan. Initially he wanted to get the support of Soviet Union. After the Soviet Union joined the Allied Powers which included Great Britain, he went to Germany. In February 1943, he made his way to Japan on a submarine and took control of the Indian National Army. The Indian National Army Captain Lakshmi Sahgal headed it (Azad Hind Fauj) had earlier been organized by Gen. Mohan Singh with Indian prisoners of war with the support of Japanese in Malaya and Burma. Bose reorganised it into three brigades: Gandhi Brigade, Nehru Brigade and a women's brigade named after Rani of Jhansi. Subhas Chandra Bose formed the Provisional Government of Free India in Singapore. He gave the slogan 'Dilli Chalo'. INA was deployed as part of the Japanese forces. However, the defeat of Japan stopped the advance of INA. The airplane carrying Subhas Chandra Bose crashed bringing to an end his crusade for freedom.

Subhas Chandra Bose's INA

The British government arrested the INA officers and put them on trial in the Red Fort. The trial became a platform for nationalist propaganda. The Congress set up a defence committee comprising Nehru, Tej Bahadur Sapru, Bhulabhai Desai and Asaf Ali. Though the INA officers were convicted they were released due to public pressure. The INA exploits and the subsequent trials inspired the Indians.

8.8 Towards Freedom

(a) Royal Indian Navy Revolt

The Royal Indian Navy ratings revolted at Bombay in February 1946. It soon spread

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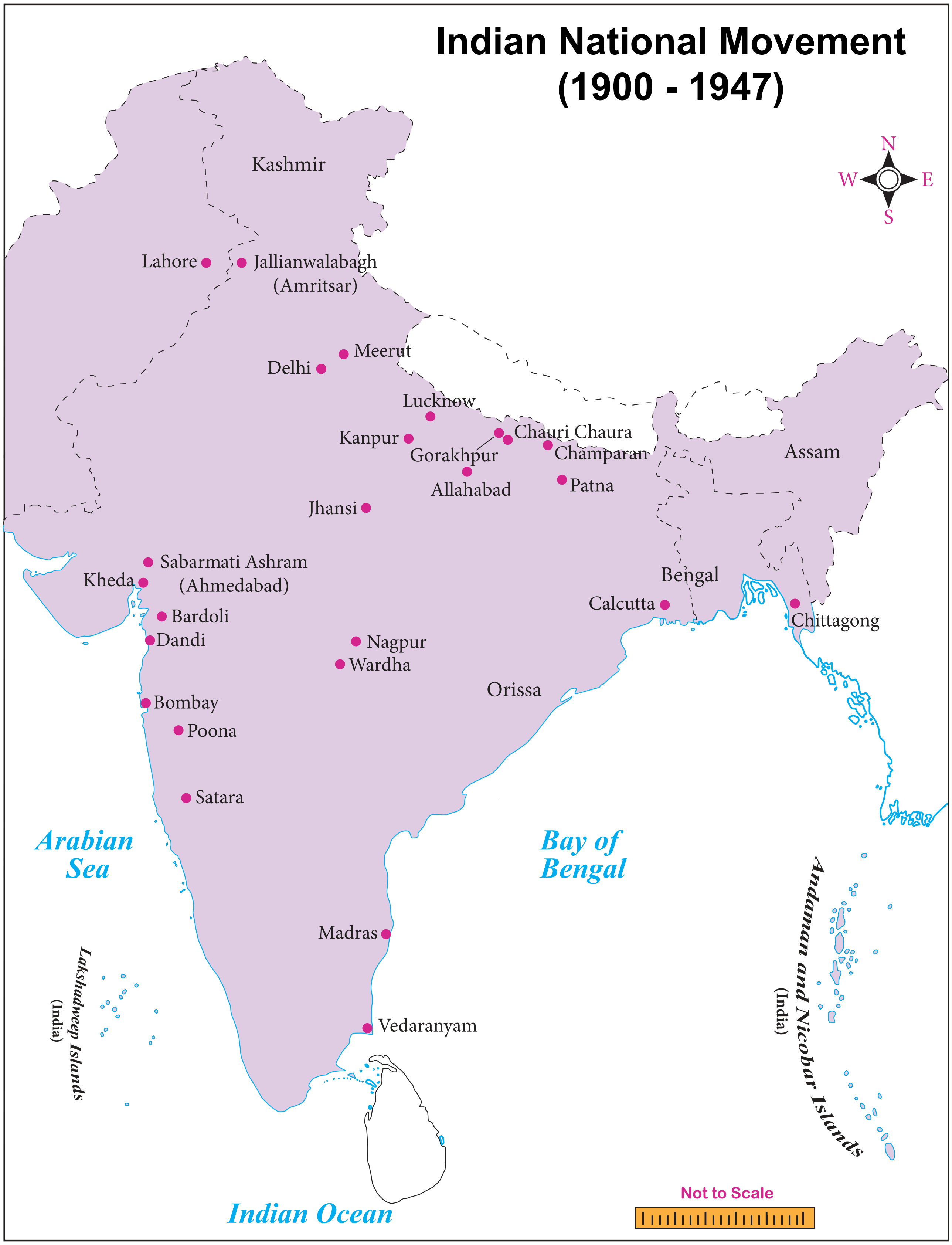

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to other stations involving more than 20,000 ratings. Similar strikes occurred in the Indian Air Force and the Indian Signal Corps at Jabalpur. Thus the British hegemonic control ceased even in the armed forces.

Hindusthan Standard

INDIAN SAILORS IN REVOLT

SIX HOURS BATTLE WITH BRITISH TROOPS

GRAVE TURN IN R.I.N. MEN'S STRIKE IN BOMBAY

TWENTY SHIPS CAPTURED

FIRING ON STRIKERS AT KARACHI

INDIANS RETALIATE WITH NAVAL GUNS

Royal Indian Navy Revolt

(b) Negotiating Independence: Simla Conference

The Wavell Plan was announced on 14 June 1945. It provided for an interim government, with an equal number of Hindus and Muslims in the Viceroy's Executive Council. All portfolios, except war portfolio, was to be held by Indian ministers. However, in the Simla Conference, the Congress and the Muslim League could not come to an agreement. Jinnah demanded that all the Muslim members should be from the Muslim League and they should have a veto on all important matters. In the provincial elections held in early 1946 the Congress won most of the general seats and the Muslim League won most of the seats reserved for the Muslims thus bolstering its claim.

(c) Cabinet Mission

In Britain, the Labour Party had won a landslide victory and Clement Atlee became the Prime Minister. He declared that he wanted to transfer power at the earliest. He sent a Cabinet Mission comprising Pethick Lawrence, Sir Strafford Cripps and A.V. Alexander. Rejecting the demand for Pakistan, it provided for a Federal government with control over defence, communications and foreign affairs. The provinces were divided into three groups viz. Non-Muslim Majority Provinces, Muslim Majority Provinces in the Northwest and the Muslim Majority Provinces in the Northeast. A Constituent Assembly was to be elected and an interim government set up with representation for all the communities. The Congress and the Muslim League accepted the plan. However, both interpreted it differently.

(d) Direct Action Day Call by Muslim League

Difference arose between Congress and Muslim League when the former nominated a Muslim member. The League argued it was to be the sole representative of the Muslims and withdrew its approval. Jinnah declared 16 August 1946 as the 'Direct Action Day'. Hartals and demonstrations took place which soon turned into Hindu-Muslim conflict. It spread to other districts of Bengal. The district of Noakhali was the worst affected.

(e) Mountbatten Plan

The interim government headed by Jawaharlal Nehru was formed in September 1946. After some hesitation the Muslim League joined it in October 1946. Its representative Liaqat Ali Khan was made the Finance Member. In February 1947, Clement Atlee declared that power would be transferred by June 1948. Lord Mountbatten was sent as Viceroy to India with the specific task of transfer of power. On 3 June 1947 the Mountbatten Plan was announced. It proposed:

- Power would be transferred on the basis of dominion status to India and Pakistan.
- Princely states would have to join either India or Pakistan.
- Boundary commission was to be set up under Radcliffe Brown and the award

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would be announced after the transfer of power.

- Punjab and Bengal Legislative Assemblies would vote on whether they should be partitioned.

(f) Independence and Partition

The Mountbatten Plan was given effect by the enactment of the Indian Independence Act on 18 July 1947 by the British Parliament. The Act abolished the sovereignty of the British Parliament over India. India was partitioned into two dominions – India and Pakistan. On 15 August 1947 India won independence.

Arrival of refugees in the wake of Partition

SUMMARY

- Gandhiji's experiments with truth, ahimsa and satyagraha in South Africa and his evolution as a mass leader are explained.
- His call for Non-Cooperation, Civil Disobedience and Quit India Movements and the fallout of these mass struggles in the form of legislation such as Government of India Act, 1919 and Government of India Act, 1935 and Independence Act, 1947 are detailed.
- Role played by Socialists and Communists and Revolutionaries represented by Bhagat Singh, Subhas Chandra Bose and outcome of their activities are highlighted.
- Use of religion for political mobilisation by Hindu Mahasabha and Muslim League leading to partition is discussed.

A-Z GLOSSARY

satyagraha	passive political resistance advocated by Mahatma Gandhi	அறப்போர், சத்தியாகிரகம்
constitutionalist	adherent of constitutional methods	அரசியல் சட்ட விதிகளைப் பின்பற்றுபவர்
discrimination	unjust or differential treatment of different categories of people, especially on grounds of caste, creed, etc	ஜாதி, கொள்கை போன்றவற்றின் அடிப்படையில் வேறுபாடு காட்டுகிற
exhort	strongly encourage or urge to do something	வற்புறுத்து, நற்செயலுக்கேவு
communalism	allegiance to one's own ethnic, religious or caste group rather than to wider society	வகுப்புவாதம்
dominion	self-governing territory	தன்னாட்சியுரிமையுடைய குடியேற்ற நாடு
electorate	all the people in a country or area who are entitled to vote in an election	வாக்காளர் தொகுதி
ultimatum	a final demand or statement of terms	கடைசி அறிவிப்பு, இறுதி எச்சரிக்கை
alienation	Isolation	தனிமைப்படுதல்
conspiracy	a secret plan by a group to do something unlawful or harmful	கூட்டுச்சதி செய்தல், சதித்திட்டம்

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EXERCISE

HE68A

I Choose the correct answer

1. Who was arrested during the anti-Rowlatt protests in Amritsar?
   a) Motilal Nehru
   b) Dr. Saifuddin Kitchlew
   c) Mohamed Ali
   d) Raj Kumar Shukla
2. In which session of the Indian National Congress was Non-Cooperation approved?
   a) Bombay b) Madras
   c) Calcutta d) Lucknow
3. Which among the following was declared as 'Independence Day'?
   a) 26th January 1930
   b) 26th December 1929
   c) 16th June 1946
   d) 15th January 1947
4. When was the first Forest Act enacted?
   a) 1858 b) 1911 c) 1865 d) 1936
5. On 8 January 1933 which day was observed ______________.
   a) Temple Entry Day
   b) Day of Deliverance
   c) Direct Action Day
   d) Independence Day
6. Which Act introduced Provincial Autonomy?
   a) 1858 Act
   b) Indian Councils Act, 1909
   c) Government of India Act, 1919
   d) Government of India Act, 1935

II Fill in the blanks

1. Gandhi regarded ______________ as his political guru.
2. Khilafat Movement was led by ______________.
3. Government of India Act 1919 introduced ______________ in the provinces.
4. The Civil Disobedience Movement in North West Frontier Province was led by ______________.
5. Ramsay Macdonald announced ______________ which provided separate electorates to the minorities and the depressed classes.
6. ______________ established Congress Radio underground during the Quit India Movement.

III Choose the correct statement

1. (i) The Communist Party of India was founded in Tashkent in 1920.
   (ii) M. Singaravelar was tried in the Kanpur Conspiracy Case.
   (iii) The Congress Socialist Party was formed by Jayaprakash Narayan, Acharya Narendra Dev and Mino Masani.
   (iv) The Socialists did not participate in the Quit India Movement.
   a) (i) and (ii) are correct
   b) (ii) and (iii) are correct
   c) (iv) is correct
   d) (i), (ii) and (iii) are correct
2. **Assertion:** The Congress attended the First Round Table Conference.
   Reason: Gandhi-Irwin Pact enabled the Congress to attend the Second Round Table Conference.
   a) Both A and R are correct but R is not the correct explanation
   b) A is correct but R is wrong
   c) A is wrong but R is correct
   d) Both A and R are correct and R is the correct explanation
3. **Assertion:** The Congress Ministries resigned in 1939.
   Reason: The Colonial government of India entered the war without consulting the elected Congress ministries.
   a) Both A and R are correct but R is not the correct explanation
   b) A is correct but R is wrong

c) Both A and R are wrong

d) Both A and R are correct and R is the correct explanation

IV Match the Following

1.	Rowlatt Act	-	Surrender of titles
2.	Non Cooperation Movement	-	Dyarchy
3.	Government of India Act, 1919	-	M.N. Roy
4.	Communist Party of India	-	Direct Action Day
5.	16th August 1946	-	Black Act

V Answer the following briefly

1. Describe the Jallianwala Bagh Massacre.
2. Write a note on the Khilafat Movement.
3. Why did Gandhi withdraw the Non Cooperation Movement?
4. Why was Simon Commission boycotted?
5. What is Poorna Swaraj?
6. Write a note on Bhagat Singh.
7. What are the terms of the Poona Pact?

VI Answer in detail

1. Examine the factors that led to the transformation of Gandhi into a mass leader.
2. Critically examine the Civil Disobedience Movement as the typical example of Gandhian movement.
3. Discuss the reasons behind the partition of India.

VII Activity

1. Students can be asked to mark the important places of Gandhian Movement in a map and write a sentence or two about what happened there.
2. Students can be divided into groups and asked to debate the views of Gandhi, Jinnah, B.R. Ambedkar, Revolutionaries and Communists.

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ICT CORNER

Nationalism: Gandhian Phase

Step-1 Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.

Step-2 Click on **'Chronology/Time line' and Select 'Family tree of Mahatma Gandhi'**

Step-3 Click on **'Glimpses of Gandhi'** in the Left side menu and click on **'Next or Previous'** to see events in life of Gandhi

Website URL:

https://www.mkgandhi.org/main.htm

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Unit - 9

Freedom Struggle in Tamil Nadu

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with:

- Anti-colonial struggles in Tamil Nadu
- Contribution of Christian missionaries to the development of education and amelioration of the depressed classes
- Challenge of the Justicites to the Congress in Tamil Nadu
- Militant mass movement of the Congress in Tamil Nadu

Introduction

Tamil Nadu showed the lead in resisting colonial rule. As early as the late eighteenth century the Palayakarars, resisted the English attempts to establish their political hegemony in Tamil Nadu. Even after the defeat of the Palayakarars, an uprising was organised by Indian sepoys and officers in Vellore Fort in 1806 that had its echoes in several cantonments in south India. Thanks to the introduction of Western education and eventual emergence of educated Indian middle class, the struggle against the British took the constitutional path. The freedom struggle in Tamil Nadu was unique, because from the beginning it was not only a struggle for independence from the English rule but also a struggle for independence from social disability imposed by the obnoxious caste system. In this lesson we shall study the role played by nationalists wedded to diverse ideologies in Tamil Nadu.

9.1 Early Nationalist Stirrings in Tamil Nadu

(a) Madras Native Association

The Madras Native Association (MNA) was the earliest organisation to be founded in south India to articulate larger public rather than sectarian interests. It was started by Gazulu Lakshminarasu, Srinivasanar and their associates in 1852. It consisted primarily of merchants. The objective was to promote the interests of its members and their focus was on reduction in taxation. It also protested against the support of the government to Christian missionary activities. It drew the attention of the government to the condition and needs of the people. One of the important contributions of the MNA was its agitation against torture of the peasants by revenue officials. These efforts led to the establishment of the

Gazalu Lakshminarasu

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Torture Commission and the eventual abolition of the Torture Act, which justified the collection of land revenue through torture. However, by 1862, the Madras Native Association had ceased to exist.

(b) Beginnings of the Nationalist Press: The Hindu and Swadesamitran

The appointment of T. Muthuswami as the first Indian Judge of the Madras High Court in 1877 created a furore in Madras Presidency. The entire press in Madras criticized the appointment of an Indian as a Judge. The press opposed his appointment and the educated youth realized that the press was entirely owned by Europeans. The need for a newspaper to express the Indian perspective was keenly felt. G. Subramaniam, M. Veeraraghavachari and four other friends together started a newspaper *The Hindu* in 1878. It soon became the vehicle of nationalist propaganda. G. Subramaniam also started a Tamil nationalist periodical *Swadesamitran* in 1891 which became a daily in 1899. The founding of *The Hindu* and *Swadesamitran* provided encouragement to the starting of other native newspapers such as *Indian Patriot*, *South Indian Mail, Madras Standard, Desabhimani, Vijaya, Suryodayam* and *India.*

T. Muthuswami

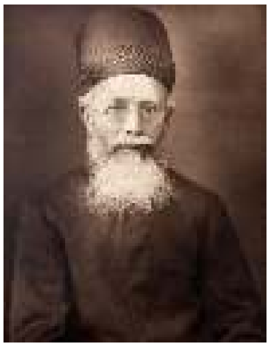
G. Subramaniam

(c) Madras Mahajana Sabha

Madras Mahajana Sabha (MMS) was the earliest organisation in south India with clear nationalist objectives. On 16 May 1884 MMS was started by M. Veeraraghavachari, P. Anandacharlu, P. Rangaiah and few others. P. Rangaiah became its first president. P. Anandacharlu played an active role as its secretary. The members met periodically, debated public issues in closed meetings, conducted hall meetings and communicated their views to the government. Its demands included conduct of simultaneous civil services examinations in England and India, abolition of the Council of India in London, reduction of taxes and reduction of civil and military expenditure. Many of its demands were adopted later by the Indian National Congress founded in 1885.

(d) Moderate Phase

Provincial associations such as the Madras Mahajana Sabha led to the formation of an all-India organisation, the Indian National Congress Leaders from different parts of India attended several meetings before the formation of the Congress. One such meeting was held in December 1884 in Theosophical Society at Adyar. It was attended by Dadabhai Naoroji, K.T. Telang, Surendranath Banerjee and other prominent leaders apart from G. Subramaniam, Rangaiah and Anandacharlu from Madras.


Dadabhai Naoroji

Gokhale

The first session of the Indian National Congress was held in 1885 at Bombay. Out of a total of 72 delegates 22 members were from Madras.

Badruddin Tyabji

The second session of the Indian National Congress was held in Calcutta in 1886, with Dadabhai Naoroji in the Chair. The third session was held at Makkis Garden, now known as the Thousand lights, in Madras in 1887 with

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Prominent Nationalists of Tamil Nadu in the Moderate phase

V.S. Srinivasanar

P.S. Sivasamy

G.A. Natesan

The early nationalists believed in constitutional methods. Their activities consisted of conducting hall meetings and deliberating the problems of the country in English. When, at the time of Partition of Bengal, Tilak and other leaders adopted popular methods such as mass public meetings, and used vernacular languages to address the larger public, the early nationalists came to be known as moderates. The distinguished Tamil Moderates from Madras: V.S. Srinivasanar, P.S. Sivasamy, V. Krishnasamy, T.R. Venkatramanar, G.A. Natesan, T.M. Madhava Rao, and S. Subramaniar.

Badruddin Tyabji as president. Out of the 607 all India delegates of 362 were from Madras Presidency.

Tamil Nadu was then part of the Madras Presidency which included large parts of the present-day states of Andhra Pradesh (Coastal districts and Rayalaseema), Karnataka (Bengaluru, Bellary, South Canara), Kerala (Malabar) and even Odisha (Ganjam).

9.2 Swadeshi Movement

The partition of Bengal (1905) led to the Swadeshi Movement and changed the course of the struggle for freedom. In various parts of India, especially Bengal, Punjab and Maharashtra popular leaders emerged. They implemented the programme of the Calcutta Congress which called upon the nation to promote Swadeshi enterprise, boycott foreign goods and promote national education.

(a) Response in Tamilnadu

V.O. Chidambaranar, V. Chakkaraiyar, Subramania Bharati and Surendranath Arya were some of the prominent leaders in Tamilnadu. Public meetings attended by thousands of people were organised in various parts of Tamilnadu. Tamil was used on the public platform for the first time to mobilise the people. Subaramania Bharati's patriotic songs were especially important in stirring patriotic emotions. Many journals were started to propagate Swadeshi ideals. *Swadesamitran* and *India* were prominent journals. The extremist leader Bipin Chandra Pal toured Madras and delivered lectures which inspired the youth. Students and youth participated widely in the Swadeshi Movement.

V.O. Chidambaranar

Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company

One of the most enterprising acts in pursuance of *swadeshi* was the launching of the Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company at Thoothukudi by V.O. Chidambaranar. He purchased two ships *Gallia* and *Lavo* and plied them between Thoothukudi and Colombo.

Tirunelveli Uprising

V.O.C joined with Subramania Siva in organising the mill workers in Thoothukudi and Tirunelveli. In 1908, he led a strike in the European-owned Coral Mills. It coincided with the release of Bipin Chandra Pal. V.O.C and Subramania Siva, who organised a public meeting to celebrate the release of Bipin, were arrested. The two leaders were charged with sedition and

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sentenced to rigorous imprisonment. Initially V.O.C. was given a draconian sentence of two life imprisonments. The news of the arrest sparked riots in Tirunelveli leading to the burning down of the police station, court building and municipal office. It led to the death of four people in police firing. V.O.C. was treated harshly in prison and was made to pull the heavy oil press. To avoid imprisonment Subramania Bharati moved to Pondicherry which was under French rule. Bharati's example was followed by many other nationalists such as Aurobindo Ghosh and V. V. Subramanianar.

Bipin Chandra Pal

Bharati

(b) Revolutionary Activities in Tamil Nadu

Pondicherry provided a safe haven for the revolutionaries. Many of these revolutionaries in Tamil Nadu were introduced and trained in revolutionary activities at India House in London and in Paris. M.P.T. Acharya, V.V. Subramanianar and T.S.S. Rajan were prominent among them. Revolutionary literature was distributed by them in Madras through Pondicherry. Radical papers such as *India, Vijaya* and *Suryodayam* came out of Pondicherry.

V.V. Subramanianar

Aurobindo Gosh

Ashe Murder

In 1904 Nilakanta Brahmachari and others started Bharata Matha Society, a secret society. The objective was to kill British officials and thereby kindle patriotic fervour among the people. Vanchinathan of Senkottai, was influenced by this organisation. On 17 June 1911 he shot dead Robert W.D'E. Ashe, Collector of Tirunelveli in Maniyachi Junction. After this he shot himself.

(c) Annie Besant and the Home Rule Movement

While the extremists and revolutionaries were suppressed with an iron hand, the moderates hoped for some constitutional reforms. However, they were disappointed with the Minto-Morley reforms as it did not provide for responsible government.

Thus when the national movement was in its ebb, Annie Besant, an Irish lady and leader of the Theosophical Society, proposed the Home Rule Movement on the model of Irish Home Rule League. She started Home Rule League in 1916 and carried forward the demand for home rule all over India. G.S. Arundale, B.P. Wadia and C.P. Ramaswamy assisted her in this campaign. They demanded home rule with only a nominal allegiance to British Crown. She started the newspapers *New India* and *Commonweal* to carry forward her agenda. She remarked, "Better bullock carts and freedom than a *train deluxe* with subjection". Under the Press Act of 1910 Annie Besant was asked to pay hefty amount as security. She wrote two books, *How India wrought for Freedom* and *India: A Nation* and *a pamphlet on self-government.*

9.3 Non-Brahmin Movement and the Challenge to Congress

(a) The South Indian Liberal Federation

The non-Brahmins organised themselves into political organisations to protect their interests. In 1912 the Madras Dravidian Association was founded. C. Natesanar played an active role as its secretary. In June 1916 he

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established the Dravidian Association Hostel for non-Brahmin students. On 20 November 1916 a meeting of about thirty non-Brahmins was held under the leadership of P. Thyagarayar, Dr. T.M. Nair and C. Natesanar at Victoria Public Hall in Chennai. The South Indian Liberal Federation (SILF) was founded to promote the interests of the non-Brahmins.

Justice Ministry

The Congress boycotted the elections of 1920. The Justice Party won 63 of 98 elected seats in the Legislative Council. A. Subburayalu of the Justice Party became the first chief minister. After the 1923 elections, Raja of Panagal of the Justice Party formed the ministry.

A Subbarayalu

Raja of Panagal

(b) Government's Repressive Measures: Rowlatt Act

A draconian Anarchical and Revolutionary Crimes Act, popularly known as the Rowlatt Act, after the name of Sir Sidney Rowlatt, who headed the committee that recommended it was passed in 1919. Under the Act anyone could be imprisoned on charges of terrorism without due judicial process. Indians were aghast at this. Gandhi gave voice to the anger of the people and adopted the Satyagraha method that he had used in South Africa.

Rowlatt Satyagraha

S. Satyamurty

On 18 March 1919 Gandhi addressed a meeting on Marina Beach. On 6 April 1919 *hartal* was organised to protest against the "Black Act". Protest demonstrations were held at several parts of Tamil Nadu. Processions from many areas of the city converged in the Marina beach where there was a large gathering. They devoted the whole day to fasting and prayer in the Marina beach. Madras Satyagraha Sabha was formed. Rajaji, Kasturirangar, S. Satyamurty and George Joseph addressed the meeting. A separate meeting of workers was addressed by V. Kalyanasundaram (Thiru. V. Ka) B.P. Wadia and V.O.C. An important aspect of the movement was that the working classes, students and women took part in large numbers.

George Joseph: George Joseph, a barrister and eloquent speaker, played a leading role in organising and publicising the cause of Home Rule League in Madurai. Though born in Chengannur (Alappuzha district, Kerala State), he chose to settle down in Madurai and practice as a people's lawyer. He was fondly called "Rosaappu Durai" by the people of Madurai for the services he rendered to the affected communities.

(c) Khilafat Movement

Following the Jallianwala Bagh Massacre General Dyer who was responsible for it was not only acquitted of all charges but rewarded. After the First World War the Caliph of Turkey was humiliated and deprived of all powers. To restore the Caliph the Khilafat Movement was started. Muslims who had largely kept from the nationalist movement now joined it in huge numbers. In Tamil Nadu Khilafat Day was observed on 17 April 1920, with a meeting presided over by Maulana Shaukat Ali. Another such conference was held at Erode. Vaniyambadi was as the epicenter of Khilafat agitation.

9.4 Non-Cooperation Movement

Tamil Nadu was active during the Non-cooperation Movement. C. Rajaji and

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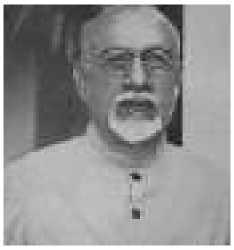
E.V. Ramaswamy (EVR, later known as Periyar) provided the leadership. Rajaji worked closely with Yakub Hasan, founder of the Madras branch of the Muslim League. As a result, all the people cooperated closely during the course of the movement in Tamil Nadu.


Yakub Hasan

(a) No Tax Campaigns and Temperance Movement

As part of the non-cooperation movement, in many places, cultivators refused to pay taxes. A no-tax campaign took place in Thanjavur. Councils, schools and courts were boycotted. Foreign goods were boycotted. There were a number of workers' strikes all over region, many of them led by nationalist leaders. One of the important aspects of the movement in Tamil Nadu was the temperance movement or movement against liquor. In November 1921 it was decided to organise civil disobedience. Rajaji, Subramania Sastri and EVR were arrested. The visit of Prince of Wales on 13 January 1922 was boycotted. In the police repression two were killed and many injured. The Non-Cooperation Movement was withdrawn in 1922 after the Chauri Chaura incident in which 22 policemen were killed.

(b) Swarajists–Justicites Rivalry

Following the withdrawal of the Non-Cooperation Movement, the Congress was divided between 'no-changers' who wanted to continue the boycott of the councils and 'pro-changers who wanted to contest the elections for the councils. Rajaji along with other staunch Gandhian followers opposed the council entry. Along with Kasturirangar and M.A. Ansari, Rajaji advocated the boycott of the councils. Opposition to this led to the formation of the Swaraj Party within the Congress by Chittaranjan Das and Motilal Nehru. In Tamil Nadu the Swarajists were led by S. Srinivasanar and S. Satyamurti.

(c) Subbarayan Ministry

In Madras provincial elections held in 1926, the Swarajists won the majority of the elected seats. However, it did not accept office in accordance with the Congress policy. Instead they supported an independent, P. Subbarayan to form the ministry. The Swarajists did not contest the 1930 elections leading to an easy victory for the Justice Party. The Justice Party remained in office till 1937.

P. Subbarayan

(d) Simon Commission Boycott

In 1927 a statutory commission was constituted under Sir John Simon to review the Act of 1919 and to suggest reforms. However, to the great disappointment of Indians, it was an all-white commission with not a single Indian member. So the Congress boycotted the Simon Commission. In Madras, the Simon Boycott Propaganda Committee was set up with S. Satyamurti as the president. The arrival of Simon Commission in Madras on 18 February 1929 black flags were waved against the Commission.

Agitation for Removal of Neill Statue (1927)

James Neill of the Madras Fusiliers (infantry men with firearms) was brutal in wreaking vengeance at Kanpur ('the Cawnpur massacre', as it was called) in which many English women and children were killed in the Great Rebellion of 1857. Neill was later killed by an Indian sepoy. A statue was erected for him at Mount Road, Madras. Nationalists saw this as an insult to Indian sentiments, and organised a series of demonstrations in Madras. The statue was finally moved to Madras Museum when Congress Ministry, led by C. Rajaji, formed the government in 1937.

9.5 Civil Disobedience Movement

(a) Towards Poorna Swaraj

The Madras session of the Indian National Congress in 1927 declared complete independence as its goal. In the 1929 Lahore

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session of the Congress, Poorna Swaraj (complete independence) was adopted as the goal and on 26 January 1930 the national flag was hoisted by Jawaharlal Nehru on the banks of river Ravi as the declaration of independence.

(b) Salt March to Vedaranyam

When the Viceroy did not accept the demands put forward by Gandhi, he launched the Civil Disobedience Movement. Rajaji organised and led a salt satyagraha march to Vedaranyam. The march started from Tiruchirappalli on 13 April 1930 and reached Vedaranyam in Thanjavur district on 28 April. A special song was composed for the march by Namakkal V. Ramalinganar with the lines, "A War is ahead *sans* sword, *sans* bloodshed… Join this march." Despite a brutal crackdown by the police, the marching *satyagrahis* were provided a warm reception along the route. On reaching Vedaranyam 12 volunteers under the leadership of Rajaji broke the salt law by picking up salt. Rajaji was arrested. T.S.S. Rajan, Rukmani Lakshmipathi, Sardar Vedarathnam, C. Swaminathar and K. Santhanam were among the prominent leaders who participated in the Vedaranyam Salt Satyagraha.

Vedaranyam Salt March Memorial

(c) Widespread Agitations in Tamil Districts

The *satyagrahis* under the leadership of T. Prakasam and K. Nageswara Rao set up a camp at Udayavanam near Madras. However, the police arrested them. It led to a hartal in Madras. The clashes with the police in Tiruvallikeni which lasted for three hours on 27 April 1930 left three dead. Volunteers who attempted to offer *salt Satyagraha* in Rameswaram were arrested. Mill workers struck work across the province. Woman participated enthusiastically. Rukmani Lakshmipathi was the first woman to pay penalty for violation of salt laws. Police used brutal force to suppress the movement. Bhashyam, popularly known as Arya, hoisted the national flag atop Fort St. George on 26 January 1932.

Rukmani Lakshmipathi

Martyrdom of Tirupur Kumaran

On 11 January 1932 a procession carrying national flags and singing patriotic songs was brutally beaten by the police in Tirupur. O.K.S.R. Kumaraswamy, popularly Tirupur Kumaran, fell dead holding the national flag aloft. He is hailed as *Kodikatha Kumaran.*

Tirupur Kumaran

(d) First Congress Ministry

In the 1937 election the Congress emerged victorious. The Justice Party was trounced. Congress victory in the elections clearly indicated its popularity with the people.

Rajaji formed the first Congress Ministry. He introduced prohibition on an experimental basis in Salem. To compensate for the loss of revenue he introduced a sales tax. When the British involved India in the Second World War without consulting the elected Congress ministries, the latter resigned.

C. Rajaji

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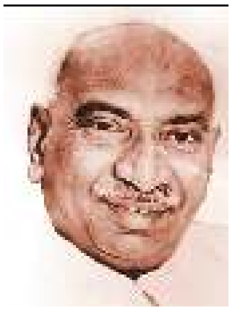
(e) Anti-Hindi Agitation

One of the controversial measures of Rajaji was the introduction of Hindi as a compulsory subject in schools. This was considered to be a form of Aryan and North Indian imposition detrimental to Tamil language and culture, and therefore caused much public resentment. E.V.R. led a massive campaign against it. He organised an anti-Hindi Conference at Salem. It formulated a definite programme of action. The Scheduled Castes Federation and the Muslim League extended its support to the anti-Hindi agitation. Natarajan and Thalamuthu, two of the enthusiastic agitators died in prison. A rally was organised from Tiruchirappalli to Madras. More than 1200 protestors including E.V.R. were arrested. After the resignation of the Congress Ministry, the Governor of Madras who took over the reigns of administration removed Hindi as compulsory subject.

9.6 Quit India Struggle

On 8 August 1942 the Quit India resolution was passed and Gandhi gave the slogan 'Do or Die'. The entire Congress leadership was arrested overnight. K. Kamaraj while returning from Bombay noticed that at every railway station the police waited with a list of local leaders and arrested them as they got down. Kamaraj gave the police the slip and got down at Arakkonam itself. He then worked underground and organised people during the Quit India Movement.



K. Kamaraj

Undying Mass Movement

All sections of the society participated in the movement. There were a large number of workers strike such as strikes in Buckingham and Carnatic Mills, Madras Port Trust, Madras Corporation and the Electric Tramway. Students of various colleges took active part in the protests. Many young men and women also joined the INA. The Quit India Movement was suppressed with brutal force.

The Royal Indian Navy Mutiny, the negotiations initiated by the newly formed Labour Party Government in England resulting in India's independence but sadly with partition of the country into India and Pakistan has formed part of the Lesson in Unit VIII.

SUMMARY

- Contributions of Madras Native Association, Madras Mahajana Sabha and the nationalist press to the growth of nationalism in Tamil Nadu are discussed.
- Swadeshi phase of the Indian National Movement in Tamil Nadu, with focus on role played by V.O.C., Subramania Siva, Subramania Bharathi, is detailed.
- Non-cooperation Movement, E.V.R.'s differences with the Congress,the birth of Swaraj Party at the national level and the Self-Respect Movement in the Tamil region are examined.
- Tamil Nadu's participation in the Civil Disobedience Movement organised to protest the disappointment over Simon Commission and the Round Table Conferences are dealt with.
- The elections under Government of India Act, 1935 and the formation of first Congress Ministry in Madras under Rajaji are outlined.

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GLOSSARY

hegemony	leadership or dominance, especially by one state or social group over others	மேலாதிக்கம்
obnoxious	extremely unpleasant	விரும்பத்தகாத, வெறுக்கப்படுகிற
consensus	a general agreement	கருத்து ஒருமைப்பாடு, முழு இசைவு
hypocrisy	insincerity/two-facedness, dishonesty, lip service	பாசாங்கு, போலிமை
seditious	inciting or causing people to rebel against the authority of a state or monarch	ஆட்சிக்கு எதிரான
demonstration	a protest meeting or march against something	பொது ஆர்ப்பாட்ட நிகழ்ச்சி
picket	a blockade of a workplace or other venue	மறியல்
boycott	refuse to cooperate with or participate in	புறக்கணி
brutal	savagely violent	கொடுமைமிக்க, இரக்கமற்ற
patriotic	having devotion to and vigorous support for one's own country	நாட்டுப்பற்று
repression	action of subduing someone or something with force	அடக்குமுறை

EXERCISE

IXFQW

I Choose the correct answer

1. Who was the first President of the Madras Mahajana Sabha?
   a) T.M. Nair
   b) P. Rangaiah
   c) G. Subramaniam
   d) G.A. Natesan
2. Where was the third session of the Indian National Congress held?
   a) Marina
   b) Mylapore
   c) Fort St. George
   d) Thousand Lights
3. Who said "Better bullock carts and freedom than a *train de luxe* with subjection"?
   a) Annie Besant
   b) M. Veeraraghavachari
   c) B.P. Wadia
   d) G.S. Arundale
4. Who among the following were Swarajists?
   a) S. Satyamurti
   b) Kasturirangar
   c) P. Subbarayan
   d) Periyar EVR
5. Who set up the satyagraha camp in *Udyavanam* near Madras?
   a) K. Kamaraj
   b) C. Rajaji
   c) K. Santhanam
   d) T. Prakasam
6. Where was the anti-Hindi Conference held?
   a) Erode
   b) Madras
   c) Salem
   d) Madurai

II Fill in the blanks

1. ______________ was appointed the first Indian Judge of the Madras High Court.
2. Nilakanta Brahmachari started the secret society named ______________.
3. ______________ formed the first Congress Ministry in Madras.
4. ______________ was the founder of the Madras branch of the Muslim League.
5. ______________ hoisted the national flag atop Fort St. George on 26 January 1932.

III Choose the correct statement

1. (i) Madras Native Association was founded in 1852.

   (ii) Tamil nationalist periodical *Swadesamitran* was started in 1891.

   (iii) The Madras Mahajana Sabha demanded conduct of civil services examinations only in India

   (iv) V.S. Srinivasanar was an extremist.

   a) (i) and (ii) are correct

   b) (iii) is correct

   c) (iv) is correct

   d) All are correct

2. (i) EVR did not participate in the Non-Cooperation Movement.

   (ii) Rajaji worked closely with Yakub Hasan of the Muslim League.

   (iii) Workers did not participate in the Non-Cooperation Movement.

   (iv) Toddy shops were not picketed in Tamil Nadu.

   a) (i) and (ii) are correct

   b) (i) and (iii) are correct

   c) (ii) is correct

   d) (i), (iii) and (iv) are correct

IV Match the Following

1.	MNA	-	Anti-Hindi agitation
2.	EVR Periyar	-	Removal of Neill Statue
3.	S.N. Somayajulu	-	Salt Satyagraha
4.	Vedaranyam	-	Torture Commission
5.	Thalamuthu	-	Vaikom Hero

V Answer the questions briefly

1. List out the contribution of the moderates.
2. Write a note on the Tirunelveli Uprising.
3. What is the contribution of Annie Besant to India's freedom struggle?

VI Answer in detail

1. Discuss the response to Swadeshi Movement in Tamil Nadu.
2. Examine the origin and growth of Non-Brahmin Movement in Tamil Nadu.
3. Describe the role of Tamil Nadu in the Civil Disobedience Movement.

VII Activity

1. Students can be asked to write a sentence or two about the important places of freedom struggle in Tamil Nadu.
2. Role Play: Students can be divided into groups and asked to debate the views of the Moderates, Extremists, Revolutionaries, Annie Besant's supporters, Justice Party, and British Government.

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Unit - 10

Social Transformation in Tamil Nadu

Learning Objectives

To acquaint ourselves with

- To acquire knowledge about the social transformation of modern Tamil Nadu
- To know the different social reform movements in Tamil Nadu
- To understand the ideas of the social reformers

Introduction

Europeans established their political power over Indian subcontinent in the latter half of the eighteenth century. While they were concerned with annexing India, by the beginning of the nineteenth century they were reordering Indian society. New revenue settlements were made. Influenced by British Utilitarian ideas and evangelicals they also tried to impose their cultural superiority over the Indian people.

This caused a reaction among the Indians. During the nineteenth century, educated Indians from different parts of the country began to feel the humiliation and responded by seeking their socio-cultural identity from their past. However, they understood some merits in the colonial arguments and were ready to reform. It resulted in the social and religious reform movements in modern India. This particular historical development is also identified as the Indian renaissance.

Renaissance is an ideological and cultural phenomenon. It is closely tied to modernity, rationalism and the progressive movement of the society. Critical thinking is at its root. This ideology of humanism stimulated creative energy in all spheres of social life and knowledge such as language, literature, philosophy, music, painting, architecture, etc.

10.1 Tamil Renaissance

The cultural hegemony of colonialism and the rise of humanism brought several changes in the socio-cultural life of the Indian subcontinent. Modern Tamil Nadu too experienced such a historical transition. Tamil language and culture played a significant role in their identity construction. The introduction of printing press, linguistic research on Dravidian languages, etc... underpinned the process of Tamil renaissance. Although religious literature was taken up predominantly for publication in the early years after the advent of printing technology, things began to change gradually. Works that can be described as secular were taken up for publishing.

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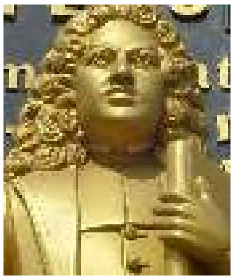
Advent of the Printing Technology

Tamil was the first non-European language that went into print. As early as in 1578, Tamil book, *Thambiran Vanakkam*, was published from Goa. In 1709, a full-fledged printing press had been established thanks to Ziegenbalg in Tranquebar.



Ziegenbalg

Thirukkural was one of the earliest Tamil literary texts to be published in 1812. This led the resurgence of interest among Tamil scholars in publishing the more ancient Tamil classics around that period.

In the nineteenth century, Tamil scholars like C.W. Damotharanar (1832–1901), and U.V. Swaminathar (1855–1942) spent their lifetime in the rediscovery of the Tamil classics. C. W. Damotharanar collected and edited different palm-leaf manuscripts of the Tamil grammar and literature. His editions included such texts as *Tolkappiyam*, *Viracholiyam*, *Iraiyanar-Akapporul*, *Ilakkana Vilakkam*, *Kaliththokai* and *Chulamani*. U.V. Swaminathar, a student of Meenakshisundaranar, took efforts to publish the classical texts such as *Civakachinthamani* (1887), *Paththupattu* (1889), *Chilapathikaram* (1892), *Purananuru* (1894), *Purapporul-Venpa-Malai* (1895), *Manimekalai* (1898), *Ainkurunuru* (1903) and *Pathitrupathu*(1904).

C.W. Damotharanar

U.V. Swaminathar

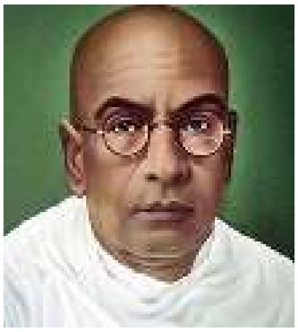
The publication of these ancient literary texts created an awareness among the Tamil people about their historical tradition, language, literature and religion. Modern Tamils founded their social and cultural identity on the ancient Tamil classics, collectively called the Sangam literature.

In 1816, F.W. Ellis (1777–1819) who founded the College of Fort St George, formulated the theory that the south Indian languages belonged to a separate family which was unrelated to the Indo-Aryan family of languages. Robert Caldwell (1814–1891) expanded this argument in a book titled, *A Comparative Grammar of the Dravidian or South Indian Family of Languages*, in 1856. He established the close affinity between the Dravidian languages in contrast with Sanskrit and also established the antiquity of Tamil.

Robert Caldwell

Tamil intellectuals of this period identified the fundamental differences between Tamil/Dravidian/ Egalitarian and Sanskrit/ Aryan/Brahmanism. They argued that Tamil was a language of Dravidian people, who are non-Brahmin and their social life was casteless, gender-sensitised and egalitarian. Tamil renaissance contributed to the origin and growth of Dravidian consciousness in the Tamil country. These ideas are exemplified in the Tamil invocation song in the play, *Manonmaniam* written by P. Sundaranar (1855–1897).

P. Sundaranar



Thiru. Vi. Ka

Bharatidasan

Ramalinga Adigal (1823–1874), popularly known as Vallalar, questioned the existing

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Hindu religious orthodoxy. Abraham Pandithar (1859–1919) gave prominence to Tamil music and published books on the history of Tamil music. C.W. Damotharanar, U.V. Swaminathar, Thiru Vi. Kaliyanasundaram (1883–1953), Parithimar Kalaignar (1870-1903), Maraimalai Adigal (1876–1950), Subramania Bharathi (1882–1921), S. Vaiyapuri (1891–1956), and the poet Bharatidasan (1891–1964), in their own ways and through their writings, contributed to the revival of Tamil literature. Meanwhile, M. Singaravelar (1860–1946) an early pioneer in Buddhist revival, promoted communism and socialism to counter the colonial power. Pandithar Iyotheethassar (1845–1914) and Periyar E.V. Ramasamy (1879–1973) held high the radical philosophy to defend the rights of the socially underprivileged and marginalised section of the people.

V.G. Suryanarayana Sastri (Parithimar Kalaignar)

Parithimar Kalaignar

V.G. Suryanarayana Sastri (1870-1903), born near Madurai, was professor of Tamil at the Madras Christian College. He was one of the earliest scholars to identify the influence of Sanskrit on Tamil, and adopted a pure Tamil name for himself: Parithimar Kalaignar. He was the first to argue that Tamil is a classical language, and demanded that the University of Madras should not call Tamil a vernacular language. Influenced by Western literary models, he introduced the sonnet form in Tamil. He also wrote novels and plays, and a number of essays on science. Tragically, he died at the young age of 33.

Maraimalai Adigal

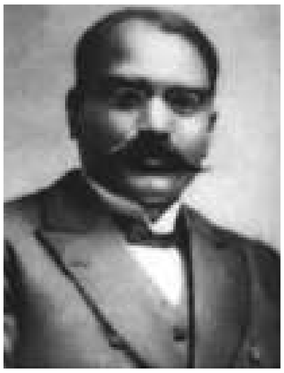
Maraimalai Adigal (1876–1950) is considered the father of Tamil linguistic purism and the founder of Tani Tamil Iyakkam (Pure Tamil Movement). He wrote commentaries on the Sangam texts, Pattinappalai and Mullaipattu. As a young man, he worked in a journal, *Siddhanta Deepika*. Later he served as a Tamil teacher in the Madras Christian College for many years. He was inclined towards non-Brahmin movement. His teachers such as P. Sundaranar and Somasundara Nayagar were key influences in his life.

Maraimalai Adigal

Tani Tamil Iyakkam
(Pure Tamil Movement)

Maraimalai Adigal promoted the use of pure Tamil words and removal of the Sanskrit influence from the Tamil language. The movement made a great impact on Tamil culture especially in language and literature. His daughter Neelambikai, played an important role in its foundation. He changed his own name Vedachalam and took on the pure Tamil name of Maraimalai Adigal. His journal *Jnanasagaram* was renamed *Arivukkadal* and his institution, *Samarasa Sanmarga Sangam,* was re-christened as *Pothu Nilai Kalakam.* Neelambikai compiled a dictionary that provided pure Tamil equivalents to Sanskrit words that had crept into Tamil vocabulary.

10.2 Rise of the Dravidian Movement


Dr. C. Natesanar

The Dravidian movement emerged as a defence of the non-Brahmins against the Brahmin dominance. An organisation called The Madras Non-Brahmin Association was founded in 1909 to help the non-Brahmin students. In 1912 C. Natesanar, a medical doctor, founded the Madras United League, later renamed

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as Madras Dravidian Association to support Dravidian uplift. The organisation focused on educating and supporting non-Brahmin graduates and conducting regular meetings to share their grievances. Meanwhile, Natesanar founded a hostel, the Dravidian Home, at Triplicane (Madras) in July 1916 to address the lack of hostels for the non-Brahmin students which hindered their educational development. In addition, the home had a literary society for the benefit of non-Brahmin students.

10.3 South Indian Liberal Federation (Justice Party)

On 20 November 1916 around 30 prominent non-Brahmin leaders including Dr. C. Natesanar, Sir Pitti Theyagarayar, T.M. Nair and Alamelu Mangai Thayarammal came together to form the South Indian Liberation Federation (SILF). In the meantime, at a meeting held in the Victoria Public Hall the Non-Brahmin Manifesto was released in December 1916. The manifesto articulated the voice of the non-Brahmin communities.

The association started publishing three newspapers: *Dravidian* in Tamil, *Justice* in English and *Andhra Prakasika* in Telugu, to propagate the ideals of the Party.

The first election, under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, was held in 1920 after the introduction of the Dyarchy form of government in the provinces. The Justice Party won the election and formed the first-ever Indian cabinet in Madras. A. Subbarayalu became the Chief Minister of the Madras Presidency and the party formed the government during 1920–1923 and 1923–1926. In the context of

Sir Pitti Theyagarayar

T.M. Nair

Congress Party boycotting the legislature, the Justice Party continued to remain in office till 1937 elections were held. In the 1937 elections the Indian National Congress contested the elections for the first time and trounced the Justice Party.

Programmes and Activities

The Justice Party is the fountain head of the non-Brahmin Movement in the country. The Justice Party government widened education and employment opportunities for the majority of the population and created space for them in the political sphere.

Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar

The Justicites removed the legal hindrances restricting inter-caste marriages and broke the barriers that prevented Depressed Classes from the use of public wells and tanks. The Justice Party government ordered that public schools accommodate the children of the Depressed Classes. Hostels were established for the students belonging to this social group in 1923. In the meantime, the Madras legislature under the Justice Party government was the first to approve participation of women in the electoral politics in 1921. This resolution created space for woman and thus facilitated Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar to become the first woman legislator in India in 1926.

The Justice Party worked towards legislating provisions for communal representation – reservations for various communities. Two Communal Government Orders (16 September 1921 and 15 August 1922) were passed to ensure equitable distribution in appointments among various castes and communities as a part of achieving social justice. The Justice Party rule established the Staff Selection Board in 1924 for the selection of government officials and encouraged all the communities to share the administrative powers. In 1929, the Government of British India adopted the

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pattern and established the Public Service Commission.

The Justice Party further concentrated on reforms in religious institutions. The Justice Party introduced the Hindu Religious Endowment (HRE) Act in 1926 and enabled any individual, irrespective of their caste affiliation, to become a member of the temple committee and govern the resources of the religious institutions.

10.4 Self-Respect Movement (*Suyamariyathai Iyakkam*)

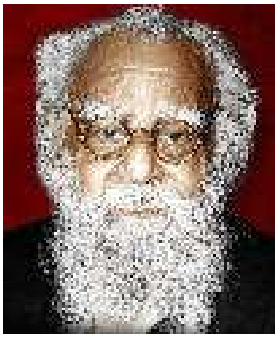
The Self-Respect movement advocated a casteless society devoid of rituals and differences based on birth. The movement declared rationality and self-respect as the birthright of all human beings and held these as more important than self-rule. The movement declared illiteracy as a source for women's subordination and promoted compulsory elementary education for all.

The movement demanded women's emancipation, deplored superstitions, and emphasised rationality. The movement also advocated self-respect marriage.

The Self-Respect Movement championed not only the cause of the non-Brahmin Hindus, but also that of the Muslims. The Self-Respect Movement extolled the lofty principles of Islam such as equality and brotherhood.

Periyar E.V.R.

Periyar E.V. Ramasamy (1879–1973) was the founder of the Self-Respect Movement. He was the son of a wealthy businessman in Erode, Venkatappa and Chinna Thayammal. Though possessing little formal education, he engaged in critical discussions with scholars, who used to be patronised by his devout father. As a young man, he once ran away from home and spent many months in Varanasi and other religious centres. The firsthand experience of orthodox Hindu religion led to his disillusionment with religion. On his return, he took care of his family business for some years. His selfless public service and forthrightness made him a popular personality. He held different official positions of Erode that included the Chairmanship of Municipal Council (1918–1919).



Periyar E.V.R

As president of the Tamil Nadu Congress Committee, Periyar proposed a resolution regarding the rights of "Untouchables" to temple entry. In the name of "caste dharma" the "lower caste" people were denied access to the temples and the streets surrounding the temple. In Vaikom (a town in the then Princely State of Travancore and in present day Kerala), people protested against this practice. In the initial stages George Joseph of Madurai played big role. After the local leaders were arrested Periyar led the movement and was imprisoned. People hailed him as *Vaikom Virar* (Hero of Vaikom). In the meantime, he was disturbed by the caste-based discrimination in the dining hall at the Cheranmadevi *Gurukulam* (school), which was run by V.V.Subramaniam (a Congress leader) with the financial support of the Tamil Nadu Congress Committee. Periyar was disappointed when, despite his objections and protests against this discrimination, the Congress continued to support the iniquitous practice in the Gurukulam.

Thanthai Periyar Memorial (Vaikom, Kerala)

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Periyar started the Self-Respect movement in 1925. Periyar understood the relevance of mass communication in spreading rationalist thought. He started a number of newspapers and journals such as *Kudi Arasu* (Democracy) (1925), *Revolt* (), *Puratchi* (Revolution) (1933), *Paguththarivu* (Rationalism) (1934), and *Viduthalai* (Liberation) (1935). *Kudi Arasu* was the official newspaper of the Self-Respect Movement. Usually, Periyar wrote a column and expressed his opinion on social issues in each of its issues. He frequently wrote columns under the pseudonym of *Chitraputtiran*.

Periyar had a close relationship with Singaravelar who is considered the first communist of south India and a pioneer of Buddhism. In 1936, Periyar got Dr. B. R. Ambedkar's *Annihilation of Caste* translated into Tamil immediately after it was written. He also supported Ambedkar's demand for separate electorates for scheduled castes.

In 1937, in opposition to the Rajaji's government's move to introduce compulsory Hindi in schools, he launched a popular movement to oppose it. The anti-Hindi agitation (1937–39) had a big impact on Tamilnadu's politics. Periyar was imprisoned for his role in the movement. When he was still in jail, Periyar was elected the president of the Justice Party. Thereafter the Justice Party merged with the Self-Respect Movement. It was rechristened as Dravidar Kazhagam (DK) in 1944.

Rajaji, the Chief Minister of Madras State (1952–54), introduced a vocational education programme that encouraged imparting school children with training in tune with their father's occupation. Periyar criticised it as Kula Kalvi Thittam (caste-based education scheme) and opposed it tooth and nail. His campaigns against it led to the resignation of Rajaji. K. Kamaraj became Chief Minister of the Madras State. Periyar died at the age of ninety four (1973). His mortal remains were buried at Periyar Thidal, Madras.

Periyar, a Feminist

Periyar was critical of patriarchy. He condemned child-marriage and the devadasi system (institution of temple girls). Right from 1929, when the Self-respect Conferences began to voice its concern over the plight of women, Periyar had been emphasising women's right to divorce and property. Periyar objected to terms like "giving in marriage". This, he said, treats woman as a thing. He wants it substituted by "*valkaithunai*,"(companion) a word for marriage taken from the Tirukkural. Peiyar's most important work on this subject is *Why the Woman is Enslaved*?

Periyar believed that property rights for women would provide them a social status and protection.

In 1989, Government of Tamil Nadu fulfilled the dream of radical reformers by the introduction of the Hindu Succession Tamil Nadu Amendment Act of 1989, which ensured the equal rights to ancestral property for women in inheritance. This Act became a trendsetter and led to similar legislation at the national level.

Rettaimalai Srinivasan

Rettaimalai Srinivasan (1859–1945), was born in 1859 at Kanchipuram. He fought for social justice, equality and civil rights of the marginalised in the caste order. He was honoured with such titles as Rao Sahib (1926), Rao Bahadur (1930) and Divan Bahadur (1936) for his selfless social services. His autobiography, *Jeeviya Saritha Surukkam* (A Brief Autobiography), published in 1939, is one of the earliest autobiographies.

Rettaimalai Srinivasan

Rettaimalai Srinivasan who had experienced the horrors of untouchability worked for the progress of the deprived castes. He founded the Adi Dravida Mahajana Sabha in 1893. He served as president of the Scheduled Castes' Federation and the Madras Provincial Depressed Classes' Federation.

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A close associate of Dr B.R. Ambedkar, he participated in the first and second Round Table Conferences held in London (1930 and 1931) and voiced the opinions of the marginalised sections of the society. He was a signatory to the Poona Pact of 1932.

M.C. Rajah

Mylai Chinnathambi Raja (1883–1943), popularly known as M.C. Rajah, was one of the prominent leaders from the "depressed class". Rajah started his career as a teacher and wrote different textbooks for schools and colleges. He was one of the founding members of the South Indian Liberal Federation (Justice Party). He became the first elected Legislative Council Member (1920–26) from the depressed classes in Madras province. He functioned as the Deputy Leader of Justice Party in the Madras Legislative Council.

M.C. Rajah

In 1928, he founded the All India Depressed Classes Association and was its long time leader.

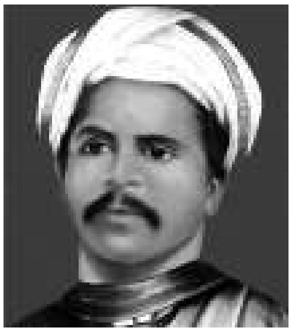
10.5 Labour Movements in Tamil Nadu

The First World War (1914–18) provided stimulus to industrial growth in India. These industries, catering to war time needs, had employed a huge number of workers. At the end of the War there were retrenchments across the industries, as the war time requirements receded. Combined with high prices, this gave a momentum to the labour movement. B.P. Wadia, M. Singaravelar, Thiru. Vi. Kalyanasundaram and others initiated the formation of labour unions in the Madras Presidency. In 1918, India's first organised trade union, the Madras Labour Union, was formed.

Labour Statue in Marina Beach

The first All India Trade Union Conference (AITUC) was held on 31 October 1920 in Bombay. The delegates discussed several resolutions. These included a demand for protection from police interference in labour disputes, the maintenance of an unemployment register, restriction on exporting foodstuffs, compensation for injuries, and health insurance.

M. Singaravelar (1860–1946), was a pioneer in the labour movement activities in the Madras presidency. He was born in Madras and graduated from the Presidency College, University of Madras. He advocated Buddhism in his early life. He knew many languages, including Tamil, English, Urdu, Hindi, German, French and Russian and wrote about the ideas of Karl Marx, Charles Darwin, Herbert Spencer and Albert Einstein in Tamil. He organised the first ever celebration of May Day in 1923. He was one of the early leaders of the Communist Party of India. He published a Tamil newspaper, *Thozhilalan* (*Worker*) to address the problems of the working class. He was closely associated with Periyar and the Self-Respect Movement.



Singaravelar

10.6 Language Agitation before Indian Independence

In general, language is a dominant symbol of identity and it is associated with culture and sentiments of any society. Tamil regained its

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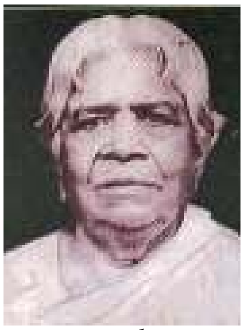
prominence in the latter half of the nineteenth and early twentieth century. Maraimalai Adigal's Pure Tamil Movement, the language reforms of Periyar and Tamil Isai Movement helped to galvanise the Tamil language. Tamil renaissance that led the Dravidian consciousness made a great intervention in the development of modern Tamil language and its art forms. Agamic temples did not permit rituals in Tamil. Tamil songs had a marginal place in musical concerts. Abraham Pandithar systematically studied the history of Tamil music and attempted to reconstruct the ancient Tamil musical system. He founded the Tanjore Sangitha Vidya Mahajana Sangam in 1912 and it became the kernel of the Tamil Isai Movement (Tamil Music Movement). The movement gave importance to the singing of Tamil compositions in music concerts. The first Tamil Isai Conference was held in 1943, to discuss the status of Tamil music.

The implementation of Hindi as a compulsory language in Tamil Nadu, at various points of time, was seen as a threat to Tamil language and culture. Periyar declared that the introduction of Hindi over Tamil would deny the Dravidians of their job opportunities. Maraimalai Adigal pointed out that the Tamil language would suffer with the introduction of Hindi. The anti-Hindi campaigners considered it an ideological battle against Brahminism and the hegemony of Sanskrit over Tamil.

10.7 Women's Movements

There were several streams of women's movements and organisations established in the early twentieth century to address the question of women empowerment in Madras Presidency. Women's India Association (WIA) and All India Women's Conference (AIWC) are the important among them in Tamil Nadu. WIA was started in 1917 by Annie Besant, Dorothy Jinarajadasa and Margaret Cousins at Adyar, Madras. The Association published pamphlets and bulletins in different languages to detail the problems of personal hygiene, marriage laws, voting rights, child care and women's role in the public. In the meantime, WIA formed the All India Women's Conference (AIWC) in 1927 to address the problem of women's education and recommended that the government implement various policies for the uplift of women.



Muvalur Ramamirtham

Women's liberation was one of the important objectives of the Self-Respect Movement. Self-respecters led by Periyar E.V.R. worked for gender equality and gender sensitisation of the society. The movement provided a space for women to share their ideas. There were several women activists in the movement. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar, Nagammai, Kannamma, Nilavathi, Muvalur Ramamirtham, Rukmani Ammal, Alarmelmangai Thayammal, Nilambikai, and Sivakami Chidambaranar are prominent among them.

There was a custom of dedicating young girls to the Hindu temples as a servant of God, known as *devadasi*. Though intended as a service to god it soon got corrupted leading to extensive immorality and abuse of the women. Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar, was in the forefront of the campaign pressing for a legislation to abolish this devadasi system. The Madras Devadasis (Prevention of Dedication) Act 1947 was enacted by the government.

In 1930, Muthulakshmi Ammaiyar introduced in the Madras Legislative Council a Bill on the "prevention of the dedication of women to Hindu temples in the Presidency of Madras". The Bill, which later became the Devadasi Abolition Act, declared the "pottukattu ceremony" in the precincts of Hindu temples or any other place of worship unlawful, gave legal sanction to devadasis to contract marriage, and prescribed a minimum punishment of five years' imprisonment for those found guilty of aiding and abetting the devadasi system. The Bill had to wait for over 17 years to become an Act.

SUMMARY

- Nineteenth century India encountered a process of introspection among Indian intellectuals due to the colonial intervention and the rise of rationalism. This led to the Indian renaissance.
- In Tamil Nadu, the proliferation of the printing press acted as a catalyst for the publication and spread of secular ancient Tamil literature.
- Tamil scholars in the nineteenth century worked hard to publish Tamil classics.
- The transformation not only revived Tamil language and literature. It challenged the prevailing caste hierarchy.
- The Justice Party established in 1916 voiced the problems of non-Brahmin in the Madras Presidency.
- Periyar E.V. Ramasamy, the pioneer of the Self-Respect Movement, critiqued fundamentalism and promoted rationalism among people.
- Ultimately, the rational ideas of Tamil Nadu became a model for constructive developments of the modern Indian state.

GLOSSARY

evangelical	Christian groups that believe that the teaching of the Bible and persuading others to join them is extremely important	சுவிசேஷர்கள், நற்செய்தியாளர்
hegemony	leadership or dominance, especially by one country or social group over others	மேலாதிக்கம்
resurgence	renewal, revival	எழுச்சி
linguists	a person skilled in languages	மொழியியலாளர்கள்
marginalised	a person, group concept treated as insignificant or sidelined	ஒதுக்கப்பட்ட
irked	irritated, annoyed	எரிச்சலூட்டும்
debunking	expose the falseness or hollowness of (a myth, idea or belief)	ஒழித்துக்கட்டும்
trounced	defeat heavily in a contest	படுதோல்வியுறச் செய்தல்
critiquing	evaluate in a detailed and analytical way	விமர்சிப்பது
iniquitous	grossly unfair and morally wrong	அநீதியான
pseudonym	a fictitious name, especially one used by an author	புனைபெயர்
rechristened	give a new name to	பெயரிடப்பட்டு

EXERCISE

TPYNX

I Choose the correct answer

1. ______________ established a full-fledged printing press in 1709, at Tranquebar.
   a) Caldwell b) F.W. Ellis
   c) Ziegenbalg d) Meenakshisundaram
2. ______________ founded Adi Dravida Mahajana Sabha in 1893.
   a) Rettaimalai Srinivasan
   b) B. R. Ambedkar
   c) Rajaji
   d) M. C. Rajah
3. India's first organised trade union, the Madras Labour Union was formed in ______________.
   a) 1918 b) 1917 c) 1916 d) 1914
4. ______________ was established by the Justice Party Government for the selection of Government officials.
   a) Staff Selection Board
   b) Public Service Commission
   c) Provincial Staff Recruitment Board
   d) Staff Selection Commission

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5. ____________ was the first elected Legislative Council Member from the depressed class in Madras Province.
   a) M. C. Rajah
   b) Rettaimalai Srinivasan
   c) T.M. Nair
   d) P. Varadarajulu

II Fill in the blanks

1. ____________ was the first non-European language that went into print.
2. The College of Fort St. George was founded by ____________.
3. ____________ is considered the father of Tamil linguistic purism.
4. ____________ was the first to approve participation of women in the electoral politics.
5. The name Suriyanarayana Sastri changed in Tamil as ____________
6. ____________ gave prominence to Tamil music.
7. The first Woman Legislator in India was ____________.

III Choose the correct statement

1. (i) Thirukkural was one of the earliest Tamil literary texts to be published in 1812.
   (ii) Maraimalai Adigal collected and edited different palm leaf manuscripts of the Tamil grammars and literature.
   (iii) Robert Caldwell established the close affinity between the Dravidian languages in contrast with Sanskrit and also established the antiquity of Tamil.
   (iv) Thiru.Vi. Kalyanasundaram was an early pioneer in Trade union movement.
   a) (i) and (ii) are correct
   b) (i) and (iii) are correct
   d) (iv) is correct
   e) (ii) and (iii) are correct

2. **Assertion (A):** The Justice Party continued to remain in government from 1920-1937 in Madras Presidency.
   Reason (R): The Congress Party boycotted the Madras Legislature during this period of Dyarchy.
   a) Both A and R are correct
   b) A is correct, but R is not the correct explanation
   c) Both A and R are wrong
   d) R is correct, but it has no relevance to A

IV Match the following

1.	Dravidian Home	-	Maraimalai Adigal
2.	*Thozhilalan*	-	Rettaimalai Srinivasan
3.	Tani Tamil Iyakkam	-	Singaravelar
4.	Jeeviya Saritha Surukkam	-	Natesanar

V Answer briefly

1. Write a note on Tamil Renaissance.
2. Highlight the contribution of Caldwell for the cause of South Indian languages.
3. List out the personalities who contributed to the revival of Tamil literature through their writings.
4. Discuss the importance of Hindu Religious Endowment Act passed by the Justicite ministry ?
5. Name the newspapers published by the South Indian Liberal Foundation.
6. Estimate Periyar as a feminist

VI Answer in detail

1. Attempt an essay on the foundation and development of Tamil Renaissance in the 19th Century.
2. Describe the background for the formation of the Justice Party and point out its contribution to the cause of social justice.

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[redacted]

3. Estimate Periyar E.V.R's decisive contribution to the social transformation of Tamil Nadu.

VII Students Activity

1. Students can be taught to distinguish between Labour Movement and Trade Union Movement. Project work on the activities of local trade union organisations may be done by students.
2. Students can compile the activities of the local writers' associations or women's collectives.

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TIME LINE

1 unit = 10 years

Important Events of Indian National Movement (1900-1947)

1900

1905 - Partition of Bengal / Swadeshi Movement
1906 - Swadeshi Steam Navigation Company was Started

1910

1916 - Home Rule League / Lucknow Pact
1917 - Champaran Satyagraha
1918 - Kheda Satyagraha
1919 - Rowlatt Act / Jalianwalah Bagh Massacre

1920

1920 - Khilafat Movement / Non-Cooperation Movement
1922 - Chauri Chaura incident
1923 - The formation of Swaraj Party
1927 - The appointment of the Simon Commission
1928 - Motilal Nehru Report
1929 - The Lahore Congress Session

1930

1930 - Salt Satyagraha / First Round Table Conference
1931 - Gandhi-Irwin Pact / Second Round Table Conference
1932 - Communal Award / Poona Pact / Third Round Table Conference
1935 - The Government of India Act
1937 - First Congress Ministry in Provinces

1940

1940 - August Offer / Individual Satyagraha
1942 - Cripps Mission / Quit India Movement
1945 - Wavell Plan / Simla Conference
1946 - Royal Indian Navy Revolt / Cabinet Mission / Interim Government
1947 - Mountbatten Plan / India got Independence

1950

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TIME LINE

1 unit = 10 years

Important Events of World History (1900-1950)

1900

1910

1910 - Formation of the Union of South Africa

1912 - First Balkan War

1914 - Outbreak of World War I

1917 - Russian Revolution

1918 - End of the World War I

1919 - Paris Peace Conference / Treaty of Versailles

1920

1920 - Establishment of League of Nation

1922 - Mussolini's March on Rome

1927 - Formation of Vietnam Nationalist Party

1929 - The Great Depression / Lateran Trearty

1930

1933 - Hitler became the Chancellor of Germany

1934 - Long March

1935 - Mussolini invaded Ethiopia

1939 - Outbreak of World War II

1940

1940 - Battle of Britain

1941 - Pearl Harbour incident

1942 - Battle of Stalingrad

1945 - End of World War II / Formation of UNO

1950

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GEOGRAPHY

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Unit - 1

India – Location, Relief and Drainage

Learning Objectives

- To understand the strategic importance of India's absolute and relative location in the world
- To know the distinct characteristics of major physiographic divisions of India
- To compare the regions of Great Indian plains
- To understand the drainage system of India
- To differentiate the Himalayan and peninsular rivers

Introduction

India is the seventh largest country in the world and second largest country in Asia. It is separated by the Himalayas from the rest of the continent. India accounts for about 2.4 % of the total area of the world with an area of 32,87,263 sq.km. many of the India states are larger than several countries of the world.

India's Land and Water Frontiers

India shares its 15,200 km long land frontier with Pakistan and Afghanistan in the north-west, China, Nepal and Bhutan in the north and Bangladesh and Myanmar in the east.

India's longest border is with Bangladesh (4156 km)while the shortest border is with Afghanistan.(106 km)

About 6,100 km long coastline of India is washed on three sides of the country by the Indian Ocean and its two arms namely the Arabian sea in the west and the Bay of Bengal in the east. The total length of the coast line of India including the islands is 7,516.6 km. India and Sri Lanka are separated by a narrow and shallow sea called Palk Strait.

India and the World

The Indian land mass has a central location between, the East and the West Asia and the southward extension of the Asian continent. The trans Indian ocean routes which connect the countries of Europe in the west and the countries of East Asia provide a strategic central location to India. Thus it helps India to establish close trade contact with West Asia, Africa and Europe from the western coast and with South East, east Asia from the eastern coast.

India: A Subcontinent

India along with the countries of Myanmar, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan and Sri Lanka is called a subcontinent.

This region possesses a distinct continental characteristics in physiography, climate, natural vegetation, minerals, human resources etc. Hence India is known as '**subcontinent**'.

1.1 Location and Extent

India extends from **8°4'N** to **37°6'N** latitudes and **68°7'E** to **97°25'E** longitudes. Hence India is located in the North and Eastern hemisphere

The southern most point of the country is Pygmalion Point or Indira Point (6°45'N latitude) located in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands. The southern most point of main land of India is **Cape Comorin** (Kanyakumari). The northern point is Indira Col.

The north-south extent of India is **3,214** km and it extends from **Indira Col** in Jammu and Kashmir in the north to Kanyakumari in the south. The east-west extension is **2933** km and it stretches from Rann of Kutch (Gujarat) in the west to Arunachal Pradesh in the east. The Tropic of Cancer (23°30’ N) passes through the middle of the country dividing it into two halves as northern temperate and southern tropical lands.

Indian Standard Time (IST)

The longitudinal difference between Gujarat in the west and Arunachal Pradesh in the east is about 30°.

Since Arunachal Pradesh is towards east, it will have sunrise about two hours earlier than the sunrise at Gujarat which is in the west. In order to avoid these differences, Indian standard time is calculated. The local time of the central meridian of India is the standard time of India. **India’s central meridian is 82°30’ E longitude.** It passes through Mirzapur and roughly bisects the country in terms of longitude. The IST is 5.30 hrs ahead of Greenwich Mean Time (GMT).

India has been politically divided into 28 states and 8 union territories for administrative convenience.

Find out the following

- West - East and North - South extened of India.
- Area wise which is the smallest and the largest state?
- The states which do not have an international border.

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DO YOU KNOW? Amaravati is the new capital of Andhra Pradesh. According to Andhra Pradesh Reorganization Act, Hyderabad will be the capital for both the states of Andhra Pradesh and Telangana till 2024 (For 10 years from the act passed).

1.2 Major Physiographic Divisions of India

The majestic Himalayan peaks in the north, the beautiful beaches in the south, the great Indian desert in the west and the breathtaking natural heritage in the east make India a geographically vibrant, colourful and truly incredible country.

G30XR

There is a varied nature of physiographic divisions in India. Though the country has many landforms based on the major differences, it is divided into the following five physiographic divisions:

1. The Northern Mountains
2. The Northern Plains
3. The Peninsular plateau
4. The Coastal Plains
5. The Islands

The Northern Mountains

The Northern Mountains consist of the youngest and the loftiest mountain chains in the world. It was formed only few millions years ago and formed by the folding of the earth crust due to tectonic activity. It stretches for a distance of 2,500 km from the Indus gorge in the west to Brahmaputra gorge in the east. The width of the Northern Mountains varies from 500 km in Kashmir to 200 km in Arunachal Pradesh. The Pamir Knot, popularly known as the **"Roof of the World"** is the connecting link between the Himalayas and the high ranges of Central Asia. From the Pamir, Himalayas extend eastward in the form of an arc shape. The term "Himalaya" is derived from Sanskrit. It means **"The Abode of Snow"**.

The Northern Mountains that function as a great wall is grouped into three divisions.

1) The Trans-Himalayas
2) Himalayas
3) Eastern Himalayas or Purvanchal hills.

DO YOU KNOW? Aravalli range is one of the oldest fold mountain range in the World.

1. The Trans-Himalayas

It lies to the north of the great Himalayan range. It lies in Jammu and Kashmir and Tibetian plateau. As its areal extent is more in Tibet, it is also known as Tibetean Himalayas. The Trans-Himalayas are about 40 km wide in its eastern and western extremities and about 225 km wide in its central part. They contain the Tethys sediments. The rocks of this region contain fossils bearing marine sediments which are underlain by 'Tertiary granite'. It has partly metamorphosed sediments and constitutes the core of the Himalayan axis. The prominent ranges of Trans Himalayas are Zaskar, Ladakh, Kailash, and Karakoram.

2. The Himalayas

It constitutes the core part of northern mountains. It is an young fold mountain. It was formed by the movement of Eurasia land mass in the north and Gondwana land mass in the south. The Tethys sea found between these two land masses was uplifted by the compression and the resultant landform was the Himalayas.It consists of many ranges. The main divisions of the Himalayas are the

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(i) The Greater Himalayas/The Himadri
(ii) The Lesser Himalayas /The Himachal
(iii) The Outer Himalayas/The Siwaliks

(i) The Greater Himalayas or the Himadri

The Greater Himalayas rise abruptly like a wall north of the Lesser Himalayas. The Greater Himalayas are about 25 km wide. Its average height is about 6,000 m. The Greater Himalayas receive lesser rainfall as compared to the Lesser Himalayas and the Siwaliks. Physical weathering is less effective over the Greater Himalayas as compared to the other ranges. Almost all the lofty peaks of Himalayas are located in this range. The notable ones are Mt. Everest (8,848

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m) and Kanchenjunga (8,598 m). Mt.Everest is located in Nepal and Kanchenjunga is located between Nepal and Sikkim. This range is the most continuous of all ranges. It is region of permanent snow cover. So, it has many glaciers. **Gangothri, Yamunothri and Siachen** are some of them.

DO YOU KNOW?

- Himalaya is the home of several high peaks.
- However, it holds the record of having the maximum number of highest peaks among any mountain range in world.
- Out of 14 highest peaks in this world, Himalayas holds 9.

(ii) The Lesser Himalayas or The Himachal

It is the middle range of Himalayas. Height of this range varies from 3, 700 to 4,500 m. Its width varies upto 80 km. The major rocks of this range are slate, limestone and quartzite. This region is subjected to extensive erosion due to heavy rainfall, deforestation and urbanization. Pir Panjal, Dhauladhar and Mahabharat are the mountain ranges found in this part. Major hill stations of the Himalayas are located in this range. **Shimla, Mussourie, Nainital, Almora, Ranikhet and Darjeeling** are the familiar ones.

- The major passes in the Himalaya are Karakoram pass (Jammu and Kashmir), Zojila pass, Shipkila pass (Himachal Pradesh), Bomdila pass (Arunachal Pradesh), Nathula pass and Jhelepla pass (Sikkim).
- The Khyber pass which connects Pakistan and Afganisthan, and Bolan pass in Pakistan are theimportant passes of the Indian subcontinent

(iii) The Outer Himalayas/The Siwaliks

The Siwaliks extend from Jammu and Kashmir to Assam. It is partly made by the debris brought by the Himalayan rivers. The altitude varying between 900-1100 metres average elevation of this range is 1000 m. The width of Siwaliks varies from 10 km in the east to 50 km in the west. It is the most discontinuous range. The longitudinal valleys found between the Siwaliks and the Lesser Himalayas are called Duns in the west and Duars in the east. These are the ideal sites for the development of settlements in this region.

3. Purvanchal Hills

These are the eastern off-shoot of Himalayas. It extended in the north-eastern states of India. Most of these hills are located along the border of India and Myanmar while others are inside India. Dafla Hills, Abor Hills, Mishmi Hills, Patkai Bum Hills, Naga Hills, Manipur Hills, Mizo Hills, Tripura Hills, Mikir Hills, Garo Hills, Khasi Hills and Jaintia Hills are the hills which are collectively known as **purvanchal Hills**.

Importance of Himalayas

- Himalayas blocks southwest monsoon winds and causes heavy rainfall to north India.
- It forms a natural barrier to the sub-continent.
- It is the source for many perennial rivers like Indus, Ganges, Brahmaputra etc.
- The Northern Mountains are described as the paradise of tourists due to its natural beauty.
- Many hill stations and pilgrim centres like Amarnath, Kedarnath, Badrinath, Vaishno Devi temple, Buddhist, Jain and Sikh centres are situated here.
- It provides raw material for many forest based industries.
- It prevents the cold winds blowing from the central Asia and protects India from severe cold.
- Himalayas are renowned for the rich biodiversity.

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The Great Northern Plains

This fertile plain lies to the south of the northern mountains. This plain is one of the most extensive stretches of the alluvium in the world and is deposited by the rivers Indus, Ganga, Brahmaputra and their tributaries. The length of the plain is about 2,400 km and the width varies from 240 to 320 km. Its width increases from east to west. It covers an area of over 7 lakh sq.km.

The Great Plains of India is remarkably a homogeneous surface with an imperceptible slope. They are formed mostly by the depositional process of the Himalayan and Vindhyan rivers. These rivers deposit enormous quantity of sediments deposited along the foothills and flood plains. The important characteristics featuress of sediment deposition in the plains areas as follows.

a) The Bhabar Plain

This plain is made up of gravels and unassorted sediments deposited by the Himalayan rivers. The porosity of this plain is so high that most of the small streams flow over this region disappear. Its width varies from 8 to 15 km. It is wider in the western plains (Jammu Division) than in the east (Assam). This plain is not suitable for cultivation, only big trees with large roots thrive in this region.

b) The Tarai Tract

It is a zone of excessive dampness, thick forests and rich wild life. This tract lies to the south of Bhabar plains. The width of this belt is 15-30 km. The Tarai is wider in the eastern parts of the Great Plains, especially in Brahmaputra Valley due to heavy rainfall. In many states, the Tarai forests have been cleared for cultivation.

c) The Bhangar Plains

The Bhangar represent the upland alluvial tracts of the Great Plains of India, formed by the older alluviums. The Bhangar land lies above the flood limits of the rivers. This soil is dark in colour, rich in humus content, well drained and useful for agriculture.

d) The Khadar Plains

The new alluvium tracts along the courses of the rivers are known as the 'Khadar' or 'Bet' lands. The Khadar tracts are enriched by fresh deposits of silt every year during rainy seasons. The Khadar land consists of sand, silt, clay and mud. It is highly fertile soil.

e) Delta

Triangle shaped fertile land at the mouth of Ganga and Brahmaputhra rivers is called as the Sundarban delta. It is the biggest and fastest growing delta. It is an area of deposition as the river flows in this tract sluggishly. The deltaic plain consists mainly of old mud, new mud and marsh. In the delta region, the uplands are called '**Chars**' while the marshy areas are called '**Bils**'.

On the basis of deposition of sediments by various rivers and topographical characteristics, the Northern Plains of India is divided into the following four major regions:

1) **Rajasthan Plains:** It is located to the west of Aravalli range. It covers an area of about 1,75,000 sq.km. Rajasthan plain is formed by the deposition of the river Luni and the long vanished river Saraswathi. There are several salt lakes in Rajasthan. The Sambhar salt lake (Pushkar Lake) near Jaipur is the prominent one.

   The Thar desert, also known as the Great Indian desert is a large arid region in the north western part of the Indian subcontinent that covers an area of 2,00,000 km^2 and forms a natural boundary between India and Pakistan. It is the world 7th largest desert.

   The desert lies in the western part of the aravalli range and covers 2/3 of Rajastan state. There are two major divisions in the Thar desert. They are known as the Actual desert region (Marusthali) and the semi desert region (Bhangar). Many different types of sand dunes and salt lakes (Dhands) are seen here.

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2) **Punjab - Haryana Plains:** It lies to the north-east of the Great Indian Desert. This plain is found over an area of about 1.75 lakh sq.km. The Punjab - Haryana plains are formed by the deposition of the rivers Sutlej, Beas and Ravi. This plain acts as water - divide (doab). The two major watershed it divides are Yamuna – Sutlej and Ganga – Yamuna.

3) **Ganga Plains:** It extends from the Yamuna River in the west to Bangladesh in the east. The total area covered by this plain is about 3.75 sq.km. River Ganga and its tributaries such as Ghaghra, Gandak, Kosi, Yamuna, Chambal, Betwa etc. constitute this plain by their sediments and make a great plain in India. It is the largest plain of India. The general slope of the entire plain (upper, middle and lower Ganga plains) is towards east and south-east.

4) **Brahmaputra Plains:** It is located mainly in the state of Assam. It is a low - level plain located in the eastern part of the Great Plains of India and is formed by the deposits of river Brahmaputra. It covers an area of about 56,275 sq.km. These plains create alluvial fans and marshy tracts.

The Peninsular Plateaus

The plateau region lies to the south of the Great Northern Plains. This is the largest physiographic division of our country. It covers an area of about 16 lakh sq.km (about half of the total area of the country). It is an old rocky plateau region. The topography consists of a series of plateaus and hill ranges interspersed with river valleys.

Aravalli hills mark the north-western boundary of the plateau region. Its northern and north-eastern boundaries are marked by the Bundelkhand upland, Kaimur and Rajmahal hills. The Western Ghats and the Eastern Ghats mark the western and eastern boundaries respectively. The altitude of a large portion of the plateau is more than 600 m from mean sea level. **The peak of Anaimudi is the highest point in the plateau**. Its height is 2,695 m and is located in Anaimalai. The general slope of this plateau is towards east. The Great Plateau is a part of the Gondwana (very ancient one) land mass. Due to the old age, the rivers in this region attained their base level and developed broad and shallow valleys.

The river Narmada divides the plateau region of India broadly into two parts. The region lying to the north of the Narmada is called the Central Highlands and the region lying to the south of Narmada is called the Deccan Plateau. All the major rivers (Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna, Kaveri etc.) lying to the south of the Vindhyas flow eastwards and fall into the Bay of Bengal. Narmada and Tapti are the two rivers situated to the south of the Vindhyas flow westward. Their movement towards west is due to the presence of a rift valley in the region.

a) Central Highlands

The Central Highlands extend between the river Narmada and the Northern Great Plains. The Aravallis form the west and northwestern edge of the Central Highlands. These hills extend from Gujarat, through Rajasthan to Delhi in the northwesterly direction for a distance of about 700 km. The height of these hills is about 1,500 m in southwest while near Delhi the height is hardly 400 m. **Gurushikhar with 1,722 m is the highest peak of this range**.

The Western part of the Central Highland is known as the Malwa Plateau. It lies to the southeast of Aravallis and to the north of Vindhyachal Range. The rivers Chambal, Betwa and Ken drain the Malwa Plateau before they join the river Yamuna. The part of the Central Highlands which extends to the east of Malwa Plateau is known as Bundelkhand and its further extension is known as Bagelkhand. The eastern part of the Central High lands which lies in the north-eastern part of the Indian Plateau is known as Chhota-Nagpur Plateau. It covers much of Jharkhand, adjacent parts of Odisha, West Bengal, Bihar and Chhattisgarh. This region is very rich in mineral resources particularly iron ore and coal.

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b) Deccan Plateau

This physiographic division is the largest part of the plateau region of India. The shape of this plateau is roughly triangular. One of the sides of this triangle is marked by the line joining Kanyakumari with Rajmahal Hills and this line passes through the Eastern Ghats. The second arm is marked by the Satpura Range, Mahadeo Hills, Maikal Range and the Rajmahal Hills. The third arm is marked by the Western Ghats. The area of this Plateau is about 7 lakh square km and the height ranges from 500 to 1000 m above sea level.

1. The Western Ghats

The Western Ghats forms the western edge of the Peninsular Plateau. It runs parallel to the Arabian Sea coast. The northern part of this range is called as Sahyadris. The height of the Sahyadris increases from north to south. Anaimudi is a sort of tri-junction of the Anaimalai Range, the Cardamom Hills and the Palani Hills. Kodaikanal is a beautiful hill resort situated on the Palani Hills.

2. The Eastern Ghats

Eastern Ghats run from southwest to northeast form the eastern edge of this Plateau. This range is also called as Poorvadri. The Eastern Ghats join the Western Ghats at the Nilgiri hills, bordering Karnataka and Tamil Nadu. The Eastern Ghats are not continuous like the Western Ghats. The rivers of Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna, Pennar and Kaveri have dissected this range at many places.

The Coastal Plains

The Peninsula Plateau of India is flanked by narrow coastal plains of varied width from north to south. They were formed by the depositional action of the rivers and the erosional and depositional actions of the sea-waves. The Indian coastal plains are divided into the following two divisions:

1) The Western Coastal Plains

2) The Eastern Coastal Plains.

1. The Western Coastal Plain

It lies between the Western Ghats and the Arabian Sea. It extends from Rann of kutch in the north to Kanyakumari in the south and its width varies from 10 to 80 km. It is mainly characterised by sandy beaches, coastal sand dunes, mud flats, lagoons, estuary, laterite platforms and residual hills. The northern part of the West Coastal Plain is known as Konkan Plain. The middle part of this plain is known as Kanara. The southern part of the plain is known as Malabar coast which is about 550 km long and 20-100 km wide. This part of the coast is characterized by sand dunes. Along the coast, there are numerous shallow lagoons and backwaters called **Kayals** and **Teris**. **Vembanad** is a famous back water lake found in this region.

2. The Eastern Coastal Plain

It lies between the Eastern Ghats and the Bay of Bengal and, stretches along the states of West Bengal, Odisha, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. These plains are formed by the alluvial fillings of the littoral zone by the east flowing rivers of India. The coastal plain consists mainly of the recent alluvial deposits. This coastal plain has a regular shoreline with well-defined beaches. The coastal plain between Mahanadi and Krishna river is known as the Northern Circars and the southern part lies between Krishna and Kaveri rivers is called Coromandal coast. Among the back water lakes of this coast, lake **Chilka** (Odisha) is the largest lake in India located to the southwest of the Mahanadi delta, the **Kolleru Lake** which lies between the deltas of Godavari and Krishna and the **Pulicat Lake** lies in the border of Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu are the well known lakes in the east coastal plain.

The Islands

India has two major island groups namely Andaman and Nicobar and Lakshadweep. The former group consists of 572 islands and are located in Bay of Bengal, and the later one has 27 islands and are located in Arabian Sea. The islands of Andaman and Nicobar are largely

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tectonic and volcanic origin. India's only active volcano is found on Barren Island in Andaman and Nicobar group of Islands.

a) Andaman and Nicobar Islands

These islands are located in an elevated portion of the submarine mountains. Since these islands lie close to the equator, the climate remains hot and wet throughout the year and has dense forests. The area of the island group is about 8,249 sq.km. The entire group of islands is divided into two. They are Andaman in the north and the Nicobar in the south. These island groups are of great strategic importance for the country. Port Blair is the administrative capital of the Andaman and Nicobar islands. The **Ten Degree Channel** separates Andaman from Nicobar group. The southernmost tip, the **Indira Point** is a part of Nicobar Island.

b) Lakshadweep Islands

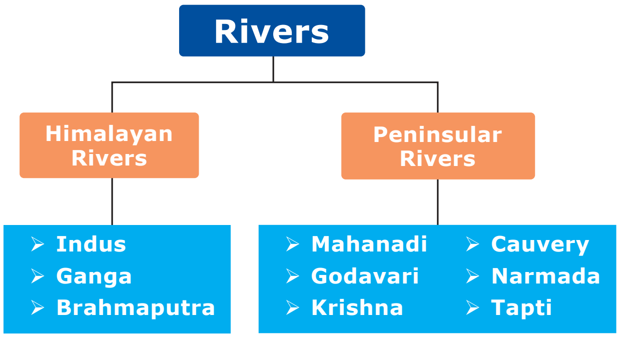
This is a small group of coral islands located off the west coast of India. It covers an area of 32 sq. km. Kavaratti is its administrative capital. Lakshadweep islands are separated from the Maldive Islands by the Eight Degree Channel. The uninhabited "**Pitt Island**" of this group has a bird sanctuary. Earlier, it had three divisions namely Laccadive, Minicoy and Amindivi. It was named as Lakshadweep in 1973.

c) Offshore Islands

Besides the two group of islands, India has a number of islands along the Western Coast, Eastern Coast, in the delta region of Ganga and in the Gulf of Mannar. Many of these islands are uninhabited and are administered by the adjacent states.

1.3 Drainage System of India

A drainage system is an integrated system of tributaries and a trunk stream which collects and drains surface water into the sea, lake or some other body of water. The total area drained by a river and its tributaries is known as a drainage basin. The drainage pattern of an area is the result of the geological structure of the respective areas. The drainage system of India is broadly divided into two major groups on the basis of their location. They are Himalayan rivers and the Peninsular rivers.



Himalayan Rivers

These rivers are found in north India and originate from Himalayas. So, they are also called as Himalayan rivers. These are perennial rivers.

a) The Indus River System

The Indus River is one of the largest rivers of the world. It originates from the northern slope of the Kailash range in Tibet near Manasarovar Lake at an elevation of about 5,150 m. Its length is about 2,880 km (Only 709 km is in India). The river has a total drainage area extending 11,65,500 sq km in which 321,289 sq km areas are drained in India. The river flows through the Ladakh and Zaskar ranges and creates deep gorges. The river runs through Jammu and Kashmir, turns south near Chillar and enters Pakistan. Its major tributaries are Jhelum, Chenab (Largest tributary of Indus), Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. It enters into with the Arabian Sea.

b) The Ganga River System

The Ganga River system is the largest drainage system of India. It extends over an area of 8,61,404 sq km. The Ganga plain is the most densely populated place in India and many towns are developed on the banks of this river. The river Ganga originates as Bhagirathi from the Gangotri Glacier in Uttar Khasi District of Uttarkhand state, at an elevation of 7,010 m.

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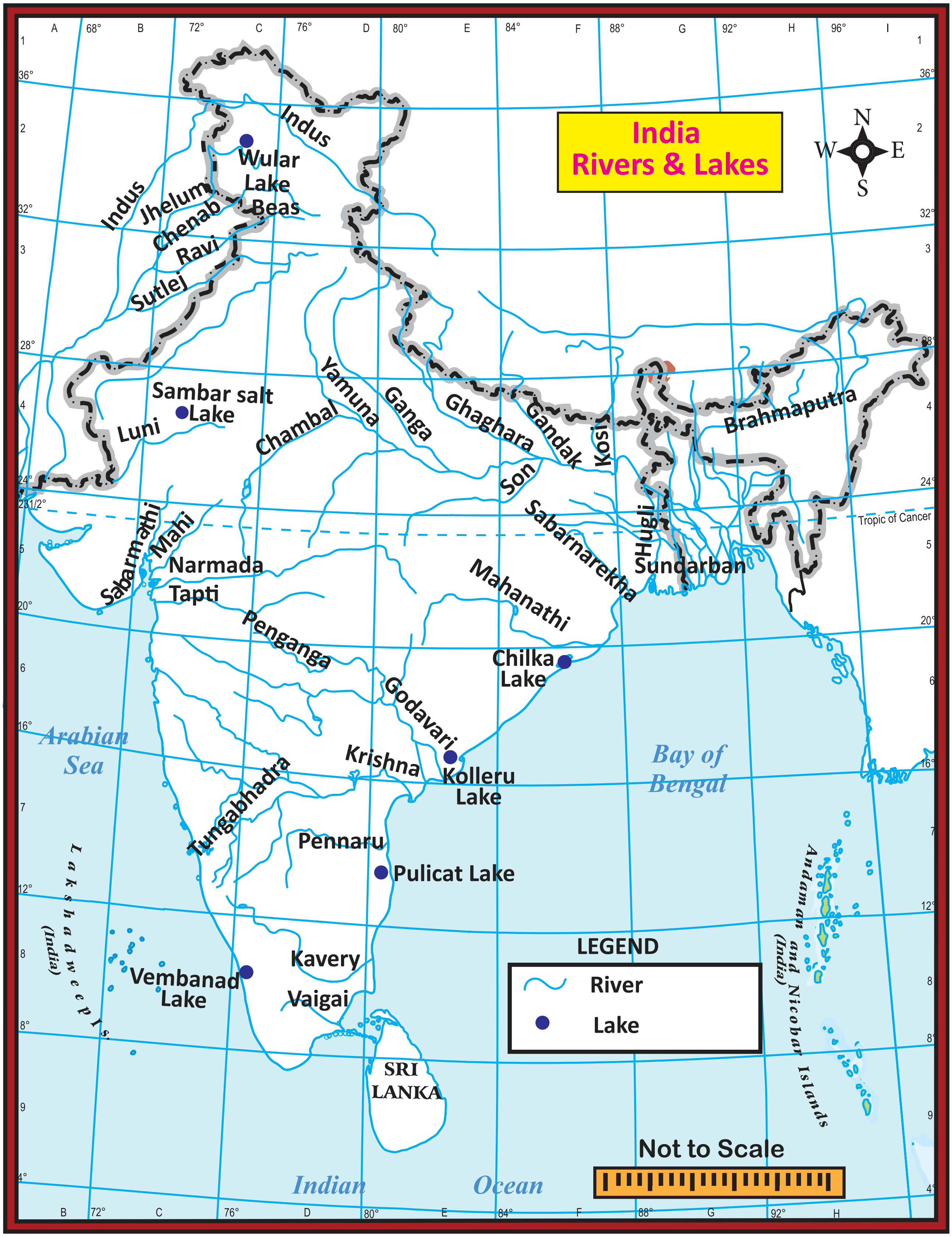

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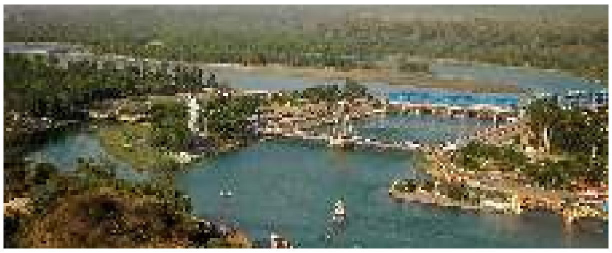
Gandak
Kosi
Brahmaputra
Son
Sabarnarekha
Hugli
Sundarban
Tropic of Cancer
Sabarmathi
Mahi
Narmada
Tapti
Mahanathi
Penganga
Chilka
Lake
Godavari
Arabian
Sea
Krishna
Kolleru
Lake
Bay of
Bengal
Tungabhadra
Pennaru
Pulicat Lake
Lakshadweep Is.
(India)
Andaman and Nicobar Islands
(India)
Kavery
Vembanad
Lake
Vaigai
LEGEND
River
Lake
SRI
LANKA
Not to Scale
Indian
Ocean

The length of the river Ganga is about 2,525 km. Its major tributaries from the north are Gomti, Gandak, Kosi and Ghaghra and from south, Yamuna (largest tributary of Ganga), Son, Chambal etc. The river Ganga is known as the River Padma in Bangladesh. The combined river of Ganga and Brahmaputra creates the World's largest delta known as Sundarbans in Bangladesh before joining the Bay of Bengal.



Ganga River - Haridwar

c) The Brahmaputra River System

The river Brahmaputra originates from the Chemayungdung Glacier of the Kailash range to the east of Lake Manasarovar in Tibet at an elevation of about 5,150 m. The total area is about 5,80,000 sq km but the drainage area found in India is 1,94,413 sq km This river is known as Tsangpo (Purifier) in Tibet. The length of this river is about 2,900 km (900 km in India). It enters into India through a gorge in Arunachal Pradesh namely Dihang. It has many tributaries. Tista, Manas, Barak, Subansiri are some of them. This river is called as Jamuna in Bangladesh. After it joins with the river Ganga in Bangladesh, the river is called as Meghna.

Characteristics of Himalayan Rivers

1. Long and wide
2. Perennial in nature
3. Unsuitable for hydro power generation
4. Middle and lower courses are navigable

Peninsular Rivers

The rivers in south India are called the Peninsular rivers. Most of these rivers originate from the Western Ghats. These are seasonal rivers (non–perennial). They have a large seasonal fluctuation in volume of water as they are solely fed by rain. These rivers flow in valleys with steep gradients. Based on the direction of flow, the peninsular rivers are divided into the

1. West flowing rivers
2. East flowing rivers

East Flowing Rivers

a) Mahanadi

The river Mahanadi originates near Sihawa in Raipur district of Chattisgarh and flows through Odisha. Its length is 851 km. Seonath, Telen, Sandur and Ib are its major tributaries. The main stream of Mahanadi gets divided into several distributaries such as Paika, Birupa, Chitartala, Genguti and Nun. All these distributaries form the Delta of Mahanadi which is one of the largest deltas in India. The Mahanadi empties its water in Bay of Bengal.

b) Godavari

Godavari is the longest river (1,465 km) with an area of 3.13 lakh km^2 among the Peninsular rivers. It is also called Vridha Ganga. It originates in Nasik district of Maharashtra, a portion of Western Ghats. It flows through the states of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh before joining Bay of Bengal. Purna, Penganga, Pranitha, Indravati, Tal and Salami are its major tributaries. The river near Rajahmundry gets divided into two Channels called Vasistha and Gautami and forms one of the largest deltas in India. Kolleru, a fresh water lake is located in the deltaic region of the Godavari.

c) Krishna

The river Krishna originates from a spring at a place called Mahabaleshwar in the Western Ghats of Maharashtra. Its length is 1,400 km and an area of 2.58 lakh sq km. It is the second longest Peninsular river Bhima, Peddavagu, Musi, Koyna and Thungabhadra are the major tributaries of this river. It also flows through Andhra Pradesh and joins in Bay of Bengal, at Hamasaladeevi.

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d) Kaveri

The river Kaveri originates at Talakaveri, Kudagu hills of Karnataka. Its length is 805 km. The river kaveri is called Dhakshin Ganga or Ganga of south. In Karnataka the river bifurcates twice, forming islands of Srirangapatnam and Sivasamudram. While entering Tamil Nadu, the Kaveri continues through a series of twisted wild gorges until it reaches Hogenakkal Falls and flows through a straight, narrow gorge near Salem. The Kaveri breaks at Srirangam Island with two channels, river Coleroon and Kaveri. At last, it empties into the Bay of Bengal at Poompuhar.

West Flowing Rivers

a) Narmada

This river rises in Amarkantak Plateau in Madhya Pradesh at an elevation of about 1057 m and flows for a distance of about 1,312 km. It covers and area of 98,796 sq km and forms 27 km long estuary before outfalling into the Arabian Sea through the Gulf of Cambay. It is the largest among the west flowing rivers of Peninsular India. Its principal tributaries are Burhner, Halon, Heran, Banjar, Dudhi, Shakkar, Tawa, Barna and Kolar.

b) Tapti

The Tapti is one of the major rivers of Peninsular India with the length of about 724 km. It covers an area of 65,145 sq km. Tapti river rises near Multai tank in the Betul district of Madhya Pradesh at an elevation of about 752 m. It is one of only the three rivers in Peninsular India that run from east to west - the others being the Narmada and the Mahi. The major tributaries are Vaki, Gomai, Arunavati, Aner, Nesu, Buray, Panjhra and Bori. It outfalls into the Arabian Sea through the Gulf of Cambay.

> In which river the Gerosappa (jog) fall is found?

Characteristics of South Indian Rivers

1. Originate from Western Ghats
2. Short and narrow
3. Non perennial in nature
4. Suitable for hydro power generation
5. Not useful for navigation

SUMMARY

- India has been physiographically divided into five divisions. They are **Northern Mountains, Northern Great Plains, The Plateau region, Coastal Plains and Islands**.
- Northern Mountains are classified into three divisions as Trans-Himalayas, Himalayas and Eastern Himalayas.
- Northern Great Plains are divided into four as Rajasthan Plains, Punjab-Haryana Plains, Gangetic Plains and Brahmaputra Plains.
- The Plateau region of India has two divisions namely the Central Highlands and the Deccan Plateau.
- Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Lakshadweep are the two major island groups of India.
- The Drainage System of India is classified into the north Indian (Himalayan) and Peninsular rivers.
- Narmada, Tapti, Mahi and Sabarmathi rivers confluence with the Arabian Sea.
- Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna and Cauvery are the major east flowing rivers and drain into Bay of Bengal.

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EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. The north-south extent of India is
   a. 2,500 km
   b. 2,933 km
   c. 3,214 km
   d. 2,814 km
2. __________ River is known as 'Sorrow of Bihar'.
   a. Narmada
   b. Godavari
   c. Kosi
   d. Damodar
3. A landmass bounded by sea on three sides is referred to as __________.
   a. Coast
   b. Island
   c. Peninsula
   d. Strait
4. The Palk Strait and Gulf of Mannar separates India from ________
   a. Goa
   b. West Bengal
   c. Sri Lanka
   d. Maldives
5. The highest peak in South India is
   a. Ooty
   b. Kodaikanal
   c. Anaimudi
   d. Jindhagada
6. ______________ Plains are formed by the older alluviums.
   a. Bhabar
   b. Tarai
   c. Bhangar
   d. Khadar
7. Pulicat Lake is located between the states of
   a. West Bengal and Odisha
   b. Karnataka and Kerala
   c. Odisha and Andhra Pradesh
   d. Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh

II Match the following

1.	Tsangpo	—	Tributary of River Ganga
2.	Yamuna	—	Highest peak in India
3.	New alluvium	—	River Brahmaputra in Tibet
4.	Mt. Godwin Austen (K2)	—	Southern part of East Coastal Plain
5.	Coromandel Coast	—	Khadhar

III Give Reasons

1. Himalayas are called young fold moutains
2. North Indian Rivers are perennial
3. South Indian rivers are east flowing.

IV Distinguish between the following

1. Himalayan rivers and Peninsular rivers.
2. Western Ghats and Eastern Ghats.
3. Western Coastal Plains and Eastern Coastal Plains.

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V Answer in brief

1. Name the neighbouring countries of India.
2. Give the importance of IST.
3. Write a short note on Deccan Plateau.
4. State the west flowing rivers of India.
5. Write a brief note on the island group of Lakshadweep

VI Answer in a paragraph

1. Explain the divisions of Northern Mountains and its importance to India.
2. Give an account on the major peninsular rivers of India.
3. Give a detailed account on the basin of the Ganga.

VII Map exercises

Mark the following in the outline map of India

1. Major mountain ranges – Karakoram, Ladakh, Zaskar, Aravalli, Western Ghats, Eastern Ghats.
2. Major rivers – Indus, Ganga, Brahmaputra, Narmada, Tapti, Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna & Kaveri.
3. Major plateaus – Malwa, Chotanagpur, Deccan.

VIII Activities

1. Observe the Peninsular Plateau map of India and mark the major plateau divisions of India
2. Prepare a table showing the major West flowing and East flowing rivers of peninsular India.
3. Assume that you are travelling from West Bengal to Gujarat along the beautiful coasts of India. Find out the states which you would pass through?
4. Find out the states through which the river Ganga flows.
5. Prepare a table showing the major rivers in India and findout it's tributaries, origin, length and area.

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Unit - 2

Climate and Natural Vegetation of India

Learning Objectives

- To describe the factors controlling the climate of India.
- To understand the characteristics of different seasons in India.
- To know about the rainfall distribution.
- To study the different types of natural vegetation and wild life in India.

Introduction

We drink more water during summer and do not drink the same amount of water during winter. Why do we wear cotton or lighter clothes during summer season and heavy woollen clothes during cold weather season in north India? Why do not we wear woollen clothes in south India? This is because of the prevalence of varying weather conditions between north and south India.

DO YOU KNOW? Equable climate is also called as the British climate, Which is neither too hot nor too cold.

2.1 The factors affecting the climate

Climate of India is affected by the factors of latitude, altitude, distance from the seas, monsoon wind, relief features and jet stream.

Latitude

Latitudinally, India lies between 8°4'N and 37°6'N latitudes. The Tropic of cancer divides the country into two equal halves. The area located to the south of Tropic of cancer experiences high temperature and no severe cold season throughout the year whereas, the areas to the north of this parallel enjoys sub-tropical climate.

Altitude

When the altitude increases, The temperature decreases. Temperature decreases at the rate of 6.5ºC for every 1000 metres of ascent. It is called **normal lapse rate.**

Hence, places in the mountains are cooler than the places on the plains. Ooty and several other hill stations of south India and of the Himalayan ranges like Mussourie, Shimla etc., are much cooler than the places located on the Great Plains.

Find out the temperature of Ooty (2240m) when it is 35ºC in Chennai (6.7m)

Distance from the Sea

A large area of India, especially the peninsular region, is not very far from the sea and this entire area has a clear maritime influence on

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climate. This part of the country does not have a very clearly marked winter and the temperature is equable almost throughout the year. Areas of central and north India experience much seasonal variation in temperature due to the absence of influence of seas. Here, summers are hot and winters are cold. The annual temperature at Kochin does not exceed 30°C as its location is on the coast while it is as high as 40°C at Delhi, since it is located in the interior part. Air near the coast has more moisture and greater potential to produce precipitation. Due to this fact, the amount of rainfall at Kolkata located near the coast is 119 cm and it decreases to just 24 cm at Bikaner which is located in the interior part.

Monsoon Wind

The most dominant factor which affects the climate of India is the monsoon winds. These are seasonal reversal winds and India remains in the influence of these winds for a considerable part of a year. Though, the sun's rays are vertical over the central part of India during the mid-June, the summer season ends in India by the end of May. It is because the onset of southwest monsoon brings down the temperature of the entire India and causes moderate to heavy rainfall in many parts of the country. Similarly, the climate of southeast India is also influenced by northeast monsoon.

> **DO YOU KNOW?**
>
> Weather refers to the state of atmosphere of a place at a given point of time.
>
> Climate is the accumulation of daily and seasonal weather events of a given location over a period of 30-35 years.

Relief

Relief of India has a great bearing on major elements of climate such as temperature, atmospheric pressure, direction of winds and the amount of rainfall. The Himalayas acts as a barrier to the freezing cold wind blows from central Asia and keep the Indian subcontinent warm. As such the north India experiences tropical climate even during winter. During southwest monsoon, areas on the western slope of the Western Ghats receive heavy rainfall. On the contrary, vast areas of Maharashtra, Karnataka, Telangana, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil nadu lie in rain shadow or leeward side of the Western Ghats receive very little rainfall. During this season, Mangalore, located on the coast gets the rainfall of about 280 cm whereas the Bengaluru located on the leeward side receives only about 50 cm rainfall.

Jet Streams

Jet streams are the fast moving winds blowing in a narrow zone in the upper atmosphere. According to the Jet stream theory, the onset of southwest monsoon is driven by the shift of the sub tropical westerly jet from the plains of India towards the Tibetan plateau. The easterly jet streams cause tropical depressions both during southwest monsoon and retreating monsoon.

2.2 Monsoon

The word '**monsoon**' has been derived from the Arabic word '**Mausim**' which means 'season'. Originally, the word 'monsoon' was used by Arab navigators several centuries ago, to describe a system of seasonal reversal of winds along the shores of the Indian Ocean, especially over the Arabian Sea. It blows from the south-west to north-east during summer and from the north-east to south-west during winter.

984CQ

Meteorologists have developed a number of concepts about the origin of monsoons. According to the Dynamic concept, Monsoon wind originates due to the seasonal migration of planetary winds and pressure belts following the position of the sun. During summer solstice, the sun's rays fall vertically over the Tropic of cancer. Therefore, all the pressure and wind belts of the globe shift northwards. At this time,

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Inter -Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) also moves northward, and a major part of Indian landmass comes under the influence of southeast trade winds. While crossing equator this wind gets deflected and takes the direction of southwest and becomes south-west monsoon. During the winter season, the pressure and wind belts shift southward, thereby establishing the north-east monsoon (trade winds) over this region. Such systematic change in the direction of planetary winds is known as monsoon.

Seasons

The meteorologists recognize the four distinct seasons in India. They are;

1. **Winter season (January - February).**
2. **Summer season (March - May).**
3. **Southwest monsoon or Rainy season (June - September).**
4. **Northeast monsoon season (October - December).**

1. Winter season

During this period, the vertical rays of the sun falls over tropic of capricorn which is far away from India. Hence, India receives the slanting sun's rays which results in low temperature. The cold weather season is characterized by clear skies, fine weather, light northerly winds, low humidity and large day time variations of temperature. During this season a high pressure develops over north India and a north-westerly wind blows down the Indus and Ganges valleys. In south India, the general direction of wind is from east to west.

The rain during this season generally occurs over the Western Himalayas, Tamil nadu and Kerala. Western disturbances and associated trough in westerlies are main rain bearing system in northern part of the country. The jet stream plays a dominant role in bringing these disturbances to India. Western disturbances cause rainfall in Punjab, Haryana and Himachal Pradesh, and snowfall in the hills of Jammu and Kashmir. This rainfall is very useful for the cultivation of winter wheat.

2. Summer season

During this season, the vertical rays of the sun falls over the peninsular India. Hence, there is a steady increase in temperature from south to north. It is practically hot and dry in the entire country in the initial part of this season. Weather over the land areas of the country is influenced by thunderstorms associated with rain and sometimes with hail mostly in the middle and later part.

During this season, temperature starts increasing all over the country and by April, the interior parts of south India record mean daily temperatures of 30°C–35°C. Central Indian land mass becomes hot with day-time maximum temperature reaching about 40°C at many locations.

Because of the atmospheric pressure conditions, the winds blow from southwest to northeast direction in Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal. They bring pre monsoon showers to the west coast during the month of May. There are few thunder showers called "**Mango Showers**" which helps in quick ripening of mangoes along the coast of Kerala and Karnataka.

"**Norwesters**" or "**Kalbaisakhis**" are the local storms with thunder that blow from north western part and rain lasting for short durations. It occurs over the eastern and north eastern parts over Bihar, West Bengal and Assam during April and May. They approach the stations from the northwesterly direction.

3. Southwest monsoon or Rainy Season

The southwest monsoon is the most significant feature of the Indian climate. The onset of the southwest monsoon takes place normally over the southern tip of the country by the first week of June, advances along the Konkan coast in early June and covers the whole country by 15th July. The monsoon is influenced by global phenomenon like **ElNino**.

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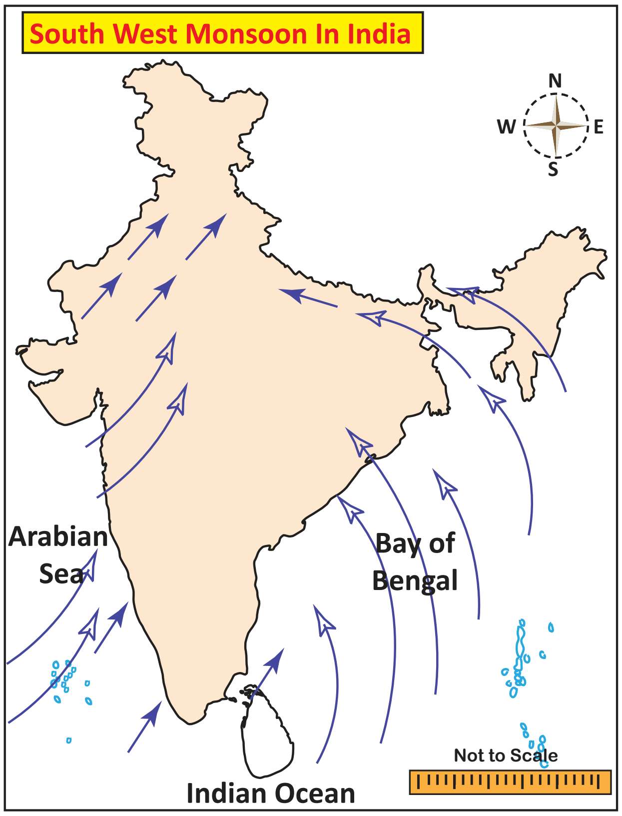

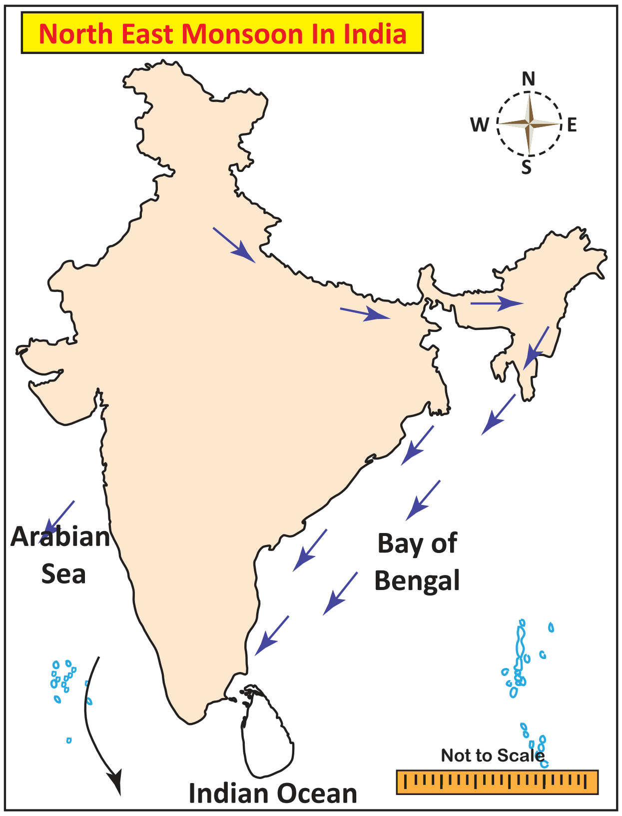

Prior to the onset of the southwest monsoon, the temperature in north India reaches upto 46°C. The sudden approach of monsoon wind over south India with lightning and thunder is termed as the '**break**' or '**burst of monsoon**'. The monsoon wind strikes against the southern tip of Indian land mass and gets divided into two branches. One branch starts from Arabian sea and the other from Bay of Bengal.

The Arabian sea branch of southwest monsoon gives heavy rainfall to the west coast of India as it is located in the windward side of the Western Ghats. The other part which advances towards north is obstructed by Himalayan Mountains and results in heavy rainfall in north. As Aravalli Mountain is located parallel to the wind direction, Rajasthan and western part do not get much rainfall from this branch.

The Bay of Bengal branch moves towards northeast India and Myanmar. This wind is trapped by a chain of mountains namely Garo, Khasi and Jaintia are mainly responsible for the heaviest rainfall caused at **Mawsynram** located in Meghalaya. Later on, this wind travel towards west which results in decrease in rainfall from east to west. Over all about **75% of Indian rainfall is received from this monsoon**.

4. Northeast monsoon season

The southwest monsoon begins to retreat from north India by the end of September due to the southward shifting pressure belts. The southwest monsoon wind returns from Indian landmass and blows towards Bay of Bengal. The coriolis force deflects this wind and makes it to blow from northeast. Hence, it is known as Northeast monsoon or Post-monsoon season. The season is associated with the establishment of the north-easterly wind system over the Indian subcontinent. Andhra Pradesh, Tamil nadu, Kerala and south interior Karnataka receive good amount of rainfall accounting for 35% of their annual total. Many parts of Tamil nadu and some parts of Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka receive rainfall during this season due to the storms forming in the Bay of Bengal. Large scale losses to life and property occur due to heavy rainfall, strong winds and storm surge in the coastal regions. The day time temperatures start falling sharply all over the country.

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DO YOU KNOW? Mawsynram, the place which receives highest rainfall (1141 cm) in the world. It is located in Meghalaya.

2.3 Distribution of rainfall

The average annual rainfall of India is 118 cm. However, spatial distribution of rainfall in the country is highly uneven.

The Western coast, Assam, South Meghalaya, Tripura, Nagaland and Arunachal Pradesh are the heavy rainfall areas which get more than 200 cm rainfall. The whole of Rajasthan, Punjab, Haryana, Western and Southwestern parts of Uttar Pradesh, Western Madhya Pradesh, the entire Deccan Trap or Plateau region east of Western Ghats except for a narrow strip along Tamil nadu coast receive a low rainfall of less than 100 cm. The rest of the areas receive a rainfall ranging between 100 and 200 cm.

2.4 Natural Vegetation

Natural vegetation refers to a plant community unaffected by man either directly or indirectly. It has its existence in certain natural environment. Natural vegetation includes all plant life forms such as trees, bushes, herbs and forbs etc, that grow naturally in an area and have been left undisturbed by humans for a long time.

Climate, soil and landform characteristics are the important environmental controls of natural vegetation.

On the basis of the above factors the natural vegetation of India can be divided into the following types.

Tropical Evergreen Forest

These forests are found in areas with 200 cm or more annual rainfall. The annual temperature is about more than 22°C and the average annual humidity exceeds 70 percent in this region. Western Ghats in Maharashtra, Karnataka, Kerala, Andaman-Nicobar Islands, Assam, West Bengal, Nagaland, Tripura, Mizoram, Manipur and Meghalaya states have this type of forests. The most important trees are rubber, mahogany, ebony, rosewood, coconut, bamboo, cinchona, candes, palm, iron wood and cedar. These have not been fully exploited due to lack of transport facilities.

Tropical Deciduous Forest

These are found in the areas with 100 to 200cm. annual rainfall. These are called '**Monsoon Forests**'. The mean annual temperature of this region is about 27°C and the average annual relative humidity is 60 to 70 percent. The trees of these forests drop their leaves during the spring and early summer. (Sub Himalayan - Region from Punjab to Assam, Great Plains- Punjab, Haryana, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, Central India - Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Chattisgarh, South India - Maharashtra, Karnataka, Telangana, Andhra Pradesh, Tamilnadu and Kerala states are notable for this type of natural vegetation.) Teak and sal are the most important trees. Sandalwood, rosewood, kusum, mahua, palas, haldu, amla, padauk, bamboo and tendu are the other trees of economic importance. These forests also provide fragrant oil, varnish, sandal oil and perfumes.

Tropical Dry Forest

These are found in the areas with 50 to 100 cm. annual rainfall. They represent a transitional type of forests. These are found in east Rajasthan, Haryana, Punjab, Western Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Eastern Maharashtra, Telangana, West Karnataka and East Tamilnadu. The important species are mahua, banyan, amaltas, palas, haldu, kikar, bamboo, babool, khair etc.,

Desert and Semi-desert Vegetation: These are also called as 'Tropical thorn forests'. These are found in the areas having annual rainfall of less than 50 cm. They have low humidity and high temperature. These forests are found in north-west India which includes west Rajasthan, south-west Haryana, north Gujarat and south-west Punjab. They are also found in the very

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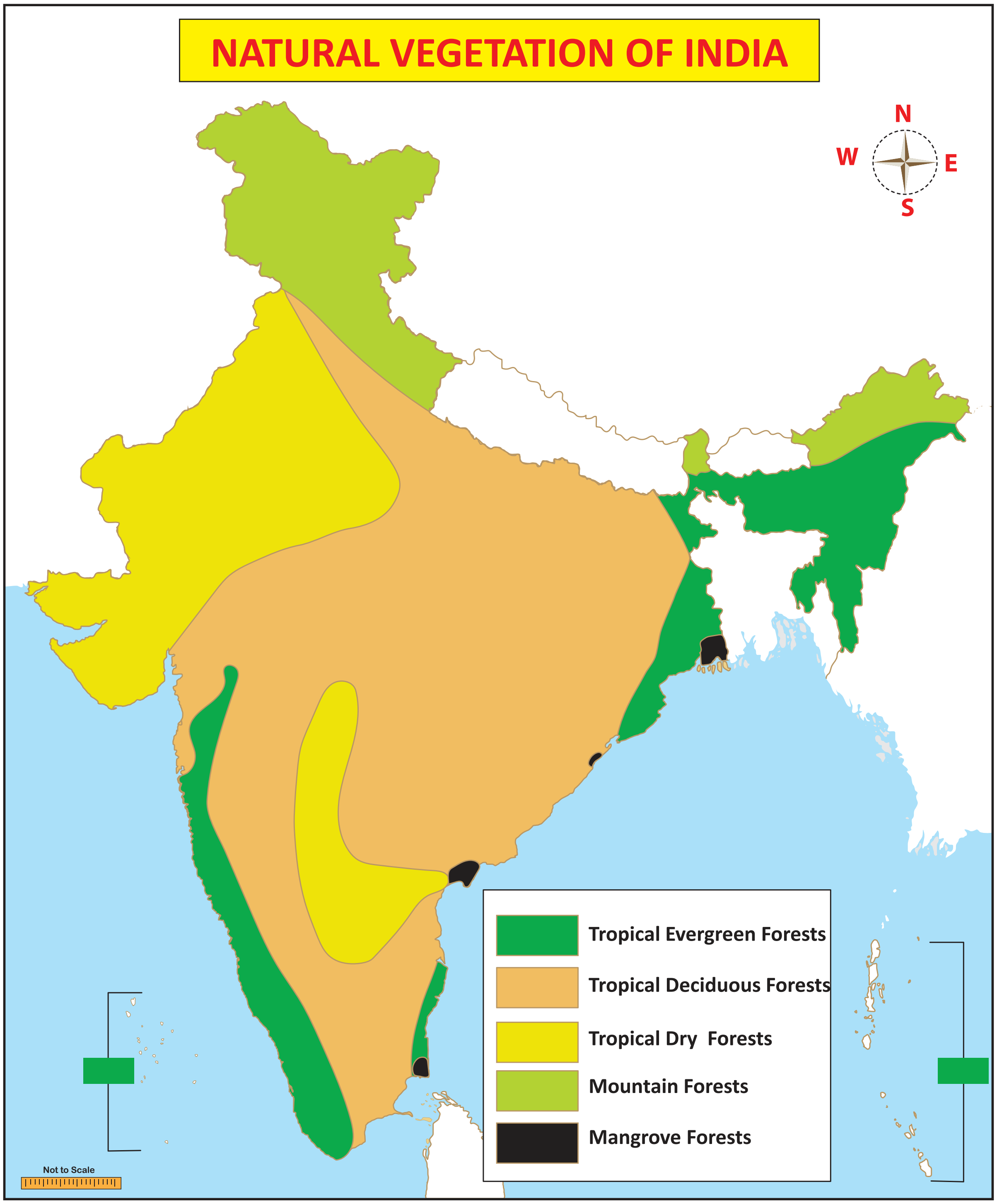

dry parts of the Deccan plateau in Karnataka, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. Babul, kikar and wild palms are common trees found here.

Mountain or Montane Forest

These forests are classified on the basis of altitude and amount of rainfall.

i. These are found on the slopes of the mountains in north-east states. These forests found in the altitude of 1200-2400m. Sal, Oak, Laurel, Amura, Chestnut, Cinnamon are the main trees found here. Oak, birch, silver, fir, fine, spruce and juniper are the major trees found at the altitude of 2400 to 3600m.

ii. The rainfall of this region is moderate. These forests are found in Jammu & Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and Uttarakhand. Upto 900 m altitude semi desert vegetation is found and it is known for bushes and small

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trees. In altitude from 900 to 1800m, chir is the most common tree. From 1800 to 3000m is covered with semi temperate coniferous forests.

Alpine Forest

It occurs all along the Himalayas with above 2400 m altitude. These are purely having coniferous trees. Oak, silver fir, pine and juniper are the main trees of these forests. The eastern parts of Himalayas has large extent of these forests.

Mangrove Forest

These forests occur in and around the deltas, estuaries and creeks prone to tidal influences and as such are also known as delta or swamp forests. The delta of the Ganga- Brahmaputra has the largest tidal forest. These are also known as **Sundarbans forest**. The deltas of Mahanadi, Godavari and Krishna rivers are also known for **tidal forests**.

2.5 Wildlife

The term '**Wildlife**' includes animals of any habitat in nature. Wild animals are non-domesticated animals and include both vertebrates (fish, amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals) and invertebrates (bees, butterflies, moths etc.). India has a rich and diversified wildlife. The Indian fauna consists of about 81,251 species of animals out of the world's total of about 1.5 million species.

Our country is home to tigers, lions, leopards, snow leopards, pythons, wolves, foxes, bears, crocodiles, rhinoceroses, camels, wild dogs, monkeys, snakes, antelope species, deer species, varieties of bison and the mighty Asian elephant. Hunting, poaching, deforestation and other anthropogenic interferences in the natural habitats have caused extinction of some species and many are facing the danger of extinction.

The Indian Board for Wildlife (IBWL)

It was constituted in 1952 to suggest means of protection, conservation and management of wildlife to the government.

The Government of India enacted Wildlife (Protection) Act in 1972 with the objective of effectively protecting the wild life of the country and to control poaching, smuggling and illegal trade in wildlife and its diversities.

To preserve the country's rich and diverse wildlife a network of **102 National Parks** and about **515 Wildlife Sanctuaries** across the country have been created.

Biosphere Reserves

Biosphere reserves are protected areas of land coastal environments

The Indian government has established **18 Biosphere Reserves** in India which protect large areas of natural habitat which often include few National Parks with buffer zones that are open to some economic uses.

DO YOU KNOW?

Project Tiger was launched in April 1973 with the aim to conserve tiger population in specifically constituted "Tiger Reserves" in India.

Biosphere Reserves in India

Eleven of the eighteen biosphere reserves (Gulf of Mannar, Nandadevi, the Nilgiris, Nokrek, Pachmarhi, Simlipal, Sundarbans Agasthiyamalai, Great Nicobar, Kanjanjunga and Amarkantak) of India fall under the list of Man and Biosphere programme of UNESCO.

SUMMARY

- Climate of India is labelled as "Tropical Monsoon Type".
- There are four seasons in India. They are winter season, hot weather, southwest monsoon, and northeast monsoon.
- Natural vegetation refers to a plant community unaffected by man either directly or indirectly.

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- Natural vegetation can be classified as tropical evergreen forests, tropical deciduous forests, tropical dry forests, desert and semi desert vegetation, mountain forests, Alpine forests, Tidal forests, etc.,
- Biosphere reserves are protected areas of land coastal environment whereby people are an integral component of a system.

EXERCISE

TOJB7

I Choose the correct answer

1. Western disturbances cause rainfall in __________.
   a) Tamilnadu b) Kerala
   c) Punjab d) Madhya Pradesh
2. __________ helps in quick ripening of mangoes along the coast of Kerala and Karnataka.
   a) Loo b) Norwester
   c) Mango showers d) Jet stream
3. __________ is a line joining the places of equal rainfall.
   a) Isohyets b) Isobar
   c) Isotherm d) Latitudes
4. Climate of India is labelled as __________.
   a) Tropical humid
   b) Equatorial Climate
   c) Tropical Monsoon Climate
   d) Temperate Climate
5. The monsoon forests are otherwise called as __________.
   a) Tropical evergreen forest
   b) Deciduous forest
   c) Mangrove forest
   d) Mountain forest
6. Sesahachalam hills, a Biosphere reserve is situated in __________.
   a) Tamil Nadu b) Andhra Pradesh
   c) Madhya Pradesh d) Karnataka
7. __________ is not a part of the world network biosphere reserves of UNESCO
   A) Nilgiri b) Agasthiyamalai
   c) Great Nicobar d) Kachch

II Match the following

1.	Sundarbans	—	Desert and semi desert vegetation
2.	Biodiversity hotspot	—	October - December
3.	North east monsoon	—	Littoral forest
4.	Tropical thorn forests	—	West Beangal
5.	Coastal forests	—	The Himalayas

III Consider the given statements and choose the correct option from the given below ones

1. **Assertion(A):** The Himalayas acts as a climatic barrier.

   Reason(R): The Himalayas prevents cold winds from central Asia and keep the Indian Sub-continent warm.(Give option for this questions)

   a) Both (A) and (R) are true: R explains A
   b) Both (A) and (R) are true: R does not explain A
   c) (A) is true (R) is false
   d) (A) is false (R) is true

IV Choose the inappropriate answer

1. Tidal forests are found in and around____.
   (a) Desert
   (b) The deltas of Ganga and Brahmaputra
   (c) The delta of Godavari
   (d) The delta of Mahanadhi

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2. Climate of India is affected by___________.

   (a) Latitudinal extent

   (b) Altitude

   (c) Distance from the sea

   (d) Soil

V Answer briefly

1. List the factors affecting climate of India.
2. What is meant by 'normal lapse rate'?
3. What are 'jet streams'?
4. Write a short note on 'Monsoon wind'.
5. Name the four distinct seasons of India.
6. What is 'burst of monsoon'?
7. Name the areas which receive heavy rainfall.
8. State the places of mangrove forests in India.
9. Write any five biosphere reserves in India.

VI Distinguish between

1. Weather and Climate
2. Tropical Evergreen Forest and Deciduous Forest.
3. North East Monsoon and South West Monsoon.

VII Give reasons

1. India has a tropical monsoon climate.
2. Mountains are cooler than the plains.

VIII Answer in detail.

1. Write about South West Monsoon.
2. Describe the forests of India.

IX Map

Mark the following on the outline map of India.

1. Direction of South West Monsoon wind.
2. Direction of North East Monsoon wind.
3. Areas of heavy rainfall.
4. Mountain forests.
5. Panna biosphere reserve
6. Agasthiyamalai biosphere reserve

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ICT CORNER

CLIMATE AND NATURAL VEGETATION OF INDIA

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Scroll Down and click on 'Explore'
- Click on 'Climate' in left side menuandSelect 'Annual Rainfall'

Website URL:

https://bhuvan-app1.nrsc.gov.in/mhrd_ncert/

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Unit - 3

India - Agriculture

Learning Objectives

- To understand the nature of India's soil types and their distribution.
- To know about the importance of irrigation and multi-purpose projects in India.
- To study about the agriculture, its types and importance.
- To understand the livestock and fishing resources of India
- To comprehend the problems of farming in India.

58D2Z

Introduction

Soil is one of the most important natural resources. India's varied natural environments resulted in a great variety of soils compared to any other country of similar size in the world. The rich, deep and fertile soils support high density of population through agricultural prosperity.

3.1 Soils

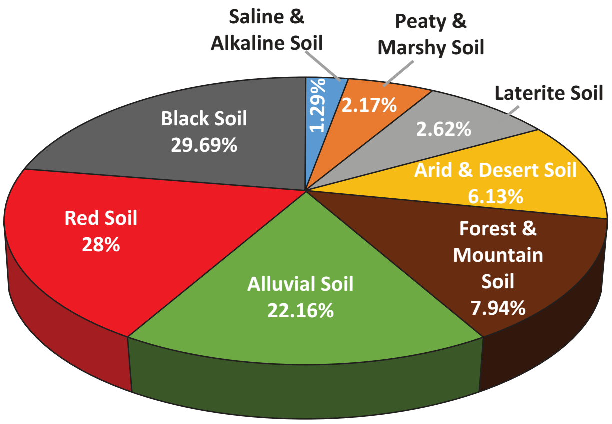
Soil is the uppermost layer of the land surface, usually composed of minerals, organic matter, living organisms, air and water. Grains in the soil are of three categories namely, clay, silt, and sand. Soils are generally formed by the weathering of rocks under different conditions. Some soils are formed by the deposition of agents of denudation. Soils can vary greatly from one region to the other.

Types of Soils

The Indian Council of Agriculture Research (ICAR) set up in 1953 divides the soils of India into the following eight major groups. They are

1. Alluvial soil
2. Black soils
3. Red soils
4. Laterite soils
5. Forest and mountain soils
6. Arid and desert soils
7. Saline and alkaline soils
8. Peaty and marshy soils

Types of Soils in India



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Soil Type	Characteristics	Distribution	Crops growing
Alluvial soil	**Khadar** – light coloured, more siliceous. **Bhangar** – the older alluvium composed of lime nodules and has clayey composition. It is dark in colour. **Formation** - sediments deposited by streams and rivers when they slowly loose **Chemical properties** - rich in potash, phosphoric acid, lime and carbon compounds but poor in nitrogen **Nature** –Sandy-loam-silt-clay profile shows no marked differentiation	Ganga and Brahmaputra river valleys; Plains of Uttar Pradesh, Uttaranchal, Punjab, Haryana, West Bengal and Bihar and river mouth of east coast.	Rice, Wheat, Sugarcane and Oilseeds
Black soils	**Formation** - Derived from basalts of Deccan trap. **Colour** - black colour, due to presence of titanium, iron. **Chemical properties** - Consist of calcium and magnesium corbonates, high quantities of iron, aluminium, lime and magnesia. Rich in potash lime, Aluminium calcium and magnesium poor in Nitrogen Phosphoric acid and humus **Nature** - Sticky when wet High degree of moisture retentivity	Maharashtra and Malwa plateaus, Kathiawar peninsula, Telangana and Rayalaseema region of Andhra Pradesh and northern part of Karnataka	Cotton, Millets, Tobacco and Sugarcane
Red soils	**Formation** - decomposition of ancient crystalline rocks like granites and gneisses and from rock type **Chemical properties** - rich in minerals such as iron and magnesium. Deficient in nitrogen, humus, phosphoric acid and lime. **Nature** - Light texture, porous friable presence of limited soluble salts Clay fraction of the red soils generally consists of Kaolinitic minerals.	Eastern parts of Deccan plateau, southern states of Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Chota Nagpur plateau (Jharkhand)	Wheat, Rice, Cotton, Sugarcane and Pulses
Laterite soils	**Formation** - formed in the regions where alternate wet and hot dry conditions prevail. It is formed by the process of leaching **Chemical properties** - Composed mainly of hydrated oxides of iron and aluminium, **Nature** - More acidic on higher areas poor in high level, cannot retain moisture while plains they consist of heavy loam and clay and easily retain moisture	Assam hills, hill summits of Kerala and Karnataka and eastern Ghats and region of Odisha	Coffee, Rubber, Cashewnut and Tapioca

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Soil Type	Characteristics	Distribution	Crops growing
Forest and mountain soils	Differ from region to region depending on climate. **Formation** - due to mechanical weathering caused by snow, rain, temperature variation **Chemical properties** - are deficient in potash, Phosphorus and lime. **Nature** - light, sandy, thin and found with the pieces of rock. Their character changes with the parent rocks. Very rich in humus. slow decomposition makes it acidic	Coniferous forest belts of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttarakhand and Sikkim. Eastern and Western Ghats	Coffee, tea, rice, maize, potato, barley, tropical fruits and various types of spices
Arid and desert soils	**Formation** - Due to prevalence of the dry climate, hightemperature and accelerated evaporation, the soil is dry, it also lacks humus content due to the absence of vegetative cover **Chemical properties** - Contain high percentages of soluble salts, alkaline with varying degree of calcium carbonate and are poor in organic matter; rich enough in phosphate though poor in nitrogen **Nature** - light in colour, low humus,friable structure, low in moisture	Rajasthan, Northern Gujarat and southern Punjab	Millets, barley, cotton, maize and pulses (with irrigation)
Saline and alkaline soils	**Formation** - formed due to ill drainage which causes water logging, injurious salts are transferred from subsurface to the top soil by the capillary action, it causes the salinisation of soils **Chemical properties** - liberate sodium, magnesium and calcium salts and sulphurous acid **Nature** - Consists of an excess of sodium salts and mineral fragments which are weathering	Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. In the drier parts of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Punjab, Rajasthan and Maharashtra	Crops do not grow because of excess salinisation of soils
Peaty and marshy soils	**Formation** - formed in humid regions from the organic matter. It is found in the areas of heavy rainfall and high humidity Peaty soils are black, heavyand highly acidic. **Chemical properties** - deficient in potash and phosphate. **Nature** - Contain considerable amount of Soluble salts and 10-40 per cent of organic matter; and high proportion of vegetable matter.	Kottayam and Alappuzha districts of Kerala; and coastal areas of Odisha and Tamil Nadu, Sundarbans of West Bengal, in Bihar and Almora district of Uttarakhand	Paddy, jute

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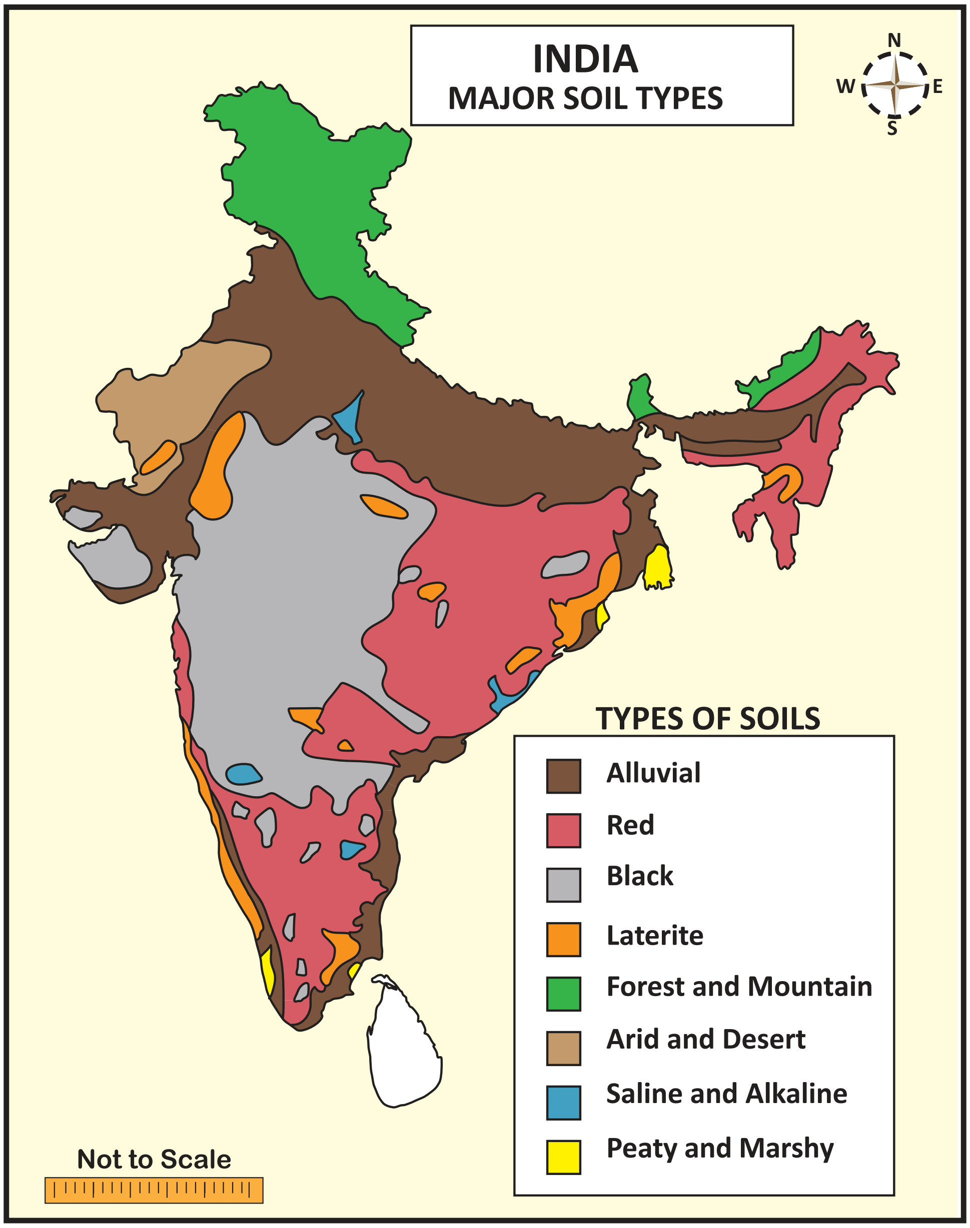
Soil degradation: Soil degradation is an acute problem in India. According to a 2015 report of the Indian institute of remote sensing (IIRS). The estimated the amount of soil .erosion that occurred in India was 147 million hectares.

The main problems of the Indian soils are i) soil erosion (sheet erosion, Rill erosion, Gully erosion, Ravine and Badland) ii) Degradation of Soil, iii) Water-logging, iv) Saline and Alkaline, and v) Salt Flats, types of soils are different erosion.

Methods of Conservation and Management of Soil

1. Afforestation
2. Constructing Dams and Barrages
3. Prevention of Overgrazing
4. Improved methods of Agricultural practices

Contour method, Rotation of crops, Contour bunding, Strip cropping, Planting of shelter belts, Adopting the techniques of sustainable agriculture are different conservation methods for better soil management.



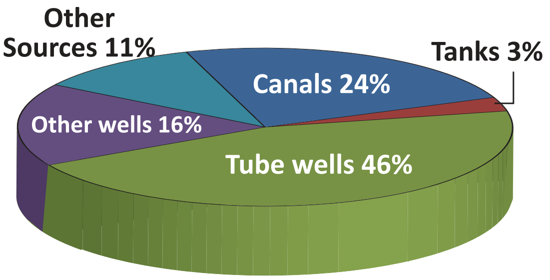
3.2 Irrigation

Watering of agricultural plants through artificial means is called irrigation. Being a hot country with seasonal and irregular rainfall, it always needs irrigation to carry out agricultural activities during dry period.

Sources of Irrigation

In India, different sources of irrigation are used depending upon the topography, soils, rainfall, availability of surface or groundwater, nature of river (whether perennial or non-perennial), requirements of crops etc. The main sources of irrigation used in different parts of the country are

- Canal irrigation
- Well irrigation and
- Tank irrigation



Area under Irrigation

a) Canal Irrigation

It is the second most important source of irrigation in our country.

Canals are the effective source of irrigation in areas of low level relief, deep, fertile soils, perennial source of water and extensive command area. The canals are of two types:

1. **Inundation Canals:** In this, water is taken out directly from the rivers without making any kind of barrage or dam. Such canals are useful for the diversion of flood water from the rivers and remain operational during rainy season.
2. **Perennial Canals:** These are developed from perennial rivers by constructing barrage to regulate the flow of water. About 60 percent of the canal irrigated area falls in the northern plains of India,

b) Well Irrigation

A well is a hole or trough, usually vertical, excavated in the earth for bringing groundwater to the surface. Well irrigation is the most important source of irrigation. It is a cheap, dependable, and popular source of irrigation in the country. Well irrigation is unavoidable in the region of low rainfall and becomes an essential one where the canals and tank irrigation are not available. Wells are of two types:

i) Open wells

ii) Tube wells

1. **Open Wells:** This type of irrigation is widely practiced in the areas where groundwater is sufficiently available. The areas are in Ganga Plains, the deltaic region of Mahanadi, Godavari, Krishna, Cauvery and parts of Narmada and Tapti valleys.
2. **Tube Wells:** Tube wells are developed in the areas of low water table, sufficient power supply and soft subsurface geological units. Tube wells are predominant in the states of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Punjab, Madhya Pradesh and Tamil Nadu.

c) Tank Irrigation

A tank is a natural or man-made hollow on the surface developed by constructing a small bund around it across a stream. It is used to collect and store water for irrigation and other purposes. Irrigation by tanks is a very old system in India. It also includes irrigation from lakes and ponds.

The tank irrigation is popular in the peninsular India due to the following reasons:

1. The undulating relief and hard rocks make difficult to dig canals and wells.
2. Natural depressions serve as reservoirs.
3. Absence of perennial rivers.
4. Impermeable rock structure which do not permit percolation.
5. The scattered nature of population and agricultural fields

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Modern irrigation methods

There are many ways in Modern Irrigation. Among them mostly practiced in India are drip irrigation, sprinklers and Rain Gun and central pivot irrigation

Drip Irrigation Method

It was first developed. In this method, water is supplied in the form of drops through nassals. water can be saved upto 70%.

Springler Method

It is the simplest and easiest method of all. In this method, water is supplied to the field from the source through the pipes with have small holes. It can be used in the areas of uneven surface also.

Rain Gun

Rain gun is used to spread water like rain. It can be used to water the crops which grow upto 4 feet. It is useful to irrigate the crops like sugarcane and maize.

Central - Pivot Irrigation

It is also called water wheel and circle irrigation. It is a method of crop irrigation in which equipment roatates around a pivot and crops are watered with springlers.

Multipurpose River Valley Projects

It is a scientific management of water resources in our country. Construction of dam across rivers is aimed at many purposes. Hence, it is termed as multi-purpose river valley projects. The various purposes of a dam serves are irrigation, hydro power generation, water supply for drinking and industrial purpose, controlling floods, development of fisheries, navigation etc. Generally, majority of multipurpose projects are combination of irrigation and hydro-power which are the major aims of the projects.

EZRP4

DO YOU KNOW?

Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchayee Yojana (PMKSY)

This has been implemented to get more production by using water saving and conservation technologies.

3.3 Agriculture

Agriculture is the process of producing food for people, fodder for cattle, fiber and many other desired products by the cultivation of certain plants and the raising of domesticated animals (livestock).

Determinants of Agriculture

Agriculture in India is determined by a set of factors. Some of the important factors:

1. Physical factors: relief, climate and soil.
2. Institutional factors: Size of farm holdings, land tenure, and land reforms.
3. Infrastructural factors: Irrigation, power, transport, credit, market, insurance and storage facilities.
4. Technological factors: High yielding varieties of seeds, chemical fertilisers, insecticides and machinery.

Types of Farming

a) Subsistence Farming

A considerable proportion of farmers in the country practice subsistence farming. Farmers grow crops with the help of family members and consumes almost the entire farm produce with little surplus to sell in the market. Preference is given to food crops. In addition to the food crops, sugarcane, oilseeds, cotton, jute and tobacco are also cultivated. Traditional farming method results in low productivity.

b) Shifting Agriculture

This type of agriculture is performed by tribal people in a piece of forest land after clearing the trees through felling and burning the trunks and branches. Once the land is

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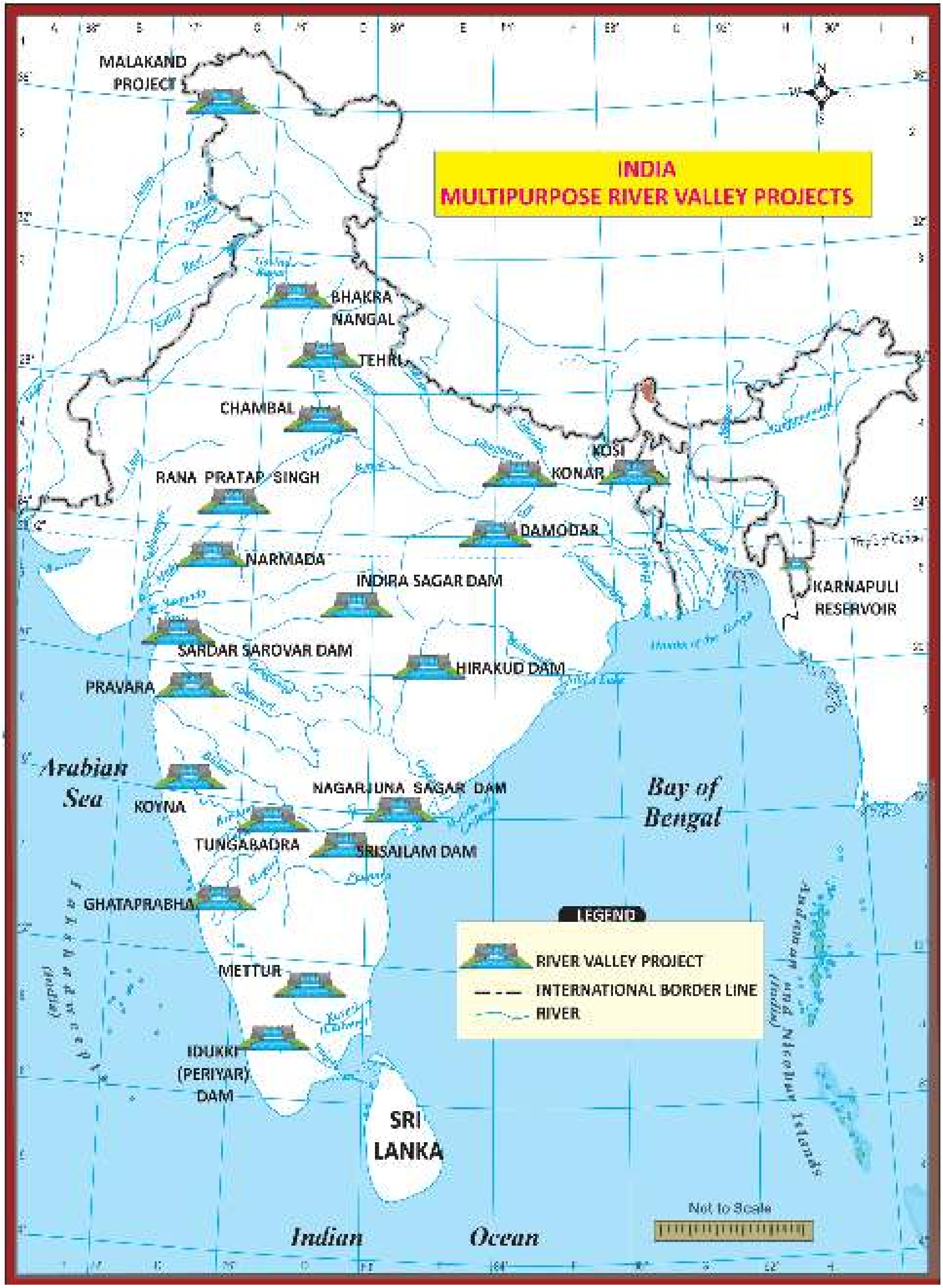

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Name of projects	River	Benefit States
Damodar Valley project	Damodar	Jharkhand, West Bengal
Bhakra-Nangal Project (highest gravity dam in the world)	Sutlej	Punjab, Haryana and Rajasthan
Hirakud Project (longest dam in the world)	Mahanadi	Orissa
Kosi Project	Kosi	Bihar & Nepal
Tungabhadra Project	Tungabhadra	Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka
Tehri Dam:	Bhagirathi	Uttarakhand
Chambal Valley Project	Chambal	Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh
Nagarjuna Sagar Project	Krishna	Andhra Pradesh
Sardar Sarover Project	Narmada	Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Rajasthan
Indira Gandhi Canal Project	Sutlej	Rajasthan, Punjab and Haryana
Mettur Dam	Cauveri	Tamil Nadu

cleared, crops are grown for two to three years and the land will get abandoned as the fertility of the soil decreases. The farmers then move to new areas and the process will be repeated. They cultivate some grains and vegetable crops using the manual labour. It is also called as "Slash and burn" cultivation.

Different names of shifting agriculture in different regions in India	
Name	**Place**
Jhum	Assam
Poonam	Kerela
Podu	Andhra Pradesh, Odisha
Beewar, Mashan, Penda, Beera	Madhya Pradesh

c) Intensive Farming

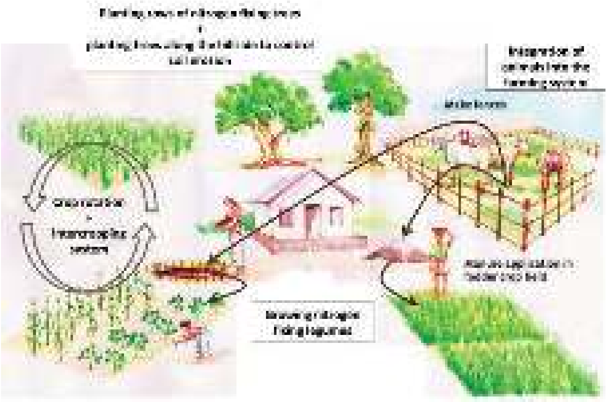
Intensive farming is an agricultural intensification and mechanization system that aims to maximize yields from available land through various means, such as heavy use of pesticides and chemical fertilizers.

d) Dry Farming

This type of farming is practiced in arid areas where irrigation facilities are lacking. Crops cultivated in these areas can withstand dry conditions. The crops grown generally with the help of irrigation are also grown under dry farming. In such circumstances, the yields are generally low. Most of the areas under dry cultivation entertain only one crop per year.

e) Mixed Farming

Mixed farming is defined as a system of farm which includes crop production, raising livestock, poultry, fisheries, bee keeping etc. to sustain and satisfy as many needs of the farmer as possible.



Mixed Farming Agriculture

f) Terrace Farming

This type of cultivation is practiced specially in hilly areas, where lands are of sloping nature. The hill and mountain slopes

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are cut to form terraces and the land is used in the same way as in permanent agriculture. Since the availability of flat land is limited, terraces are made to provide small patches of level land. Soil erosion is also checked due to terrace formation on hill slopes.

3.4 Major Crops Cultivated in India

The major crops of India are divided into four major categories as follows:

1. Food crops (wheat, maize, rice, millets, pulses etc.).
2. Cash crops (sugarcane, tobacco, cotton, jute, oilseeds etc.).
3. Plantation crops (tea, coffee and rubber).
4. Horticulture crops (fruits, flowers and vegetables).

1. Food Crops

Due to its large population, Indian agriculture is largely dominated by the food crops.

Rice

Rice is an indigenous crop. India is the second largest producer of rice in the world after China. It is mainly a tropical crop, growing mainly with mean temperatures of 24°C and annual rainfall of 150 cm. Deep fertile clayey or loamy soils are suited well for rice cultivation. It also needs abundant supply of cheap labour.

Paddy Cultivation

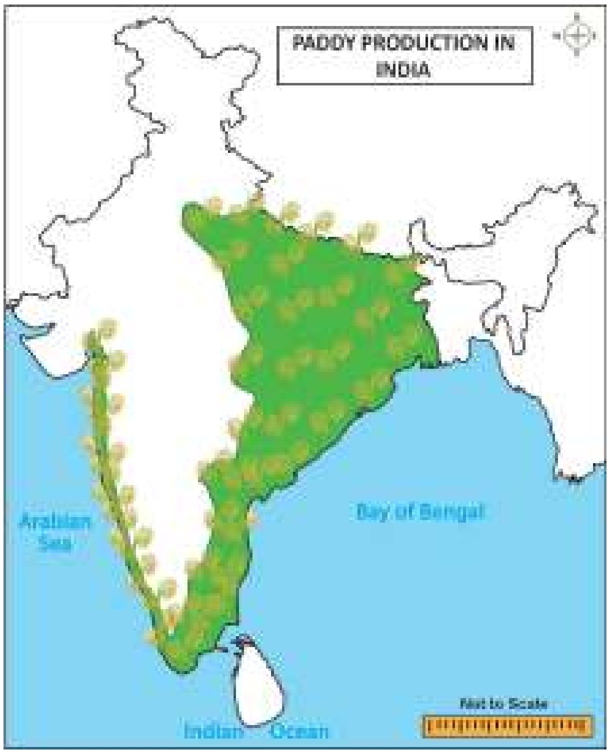
Rice in India is sown in three ways:

i) Broadcasting,

ii) Ploughing or drilling

iii) Transplanting

Due to increased use of High Yielding Variety (HYV) seeds (CR Dhan 205, AR Dhan 306, CRR 451 etc.), many of the indigenous varieties were disappeared. In 2016, the first 10 leading rice producing states are West Bengal (First in India) Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Odisha, Assam, and Haryana.



Wheat

Wheat is the second most important food crop of the country, after rice. It accounts for 22 percent of the total area and

Cropping Seasons in India

Cropping Seasons	Major crops cultivated: Northern States	Major crops cultivated: Southern States
Kharif Season June–September	Rice, Cotton, Bajra, Maize, Jowar, Tur	Rice, Ragi, Maize, Jowar, Groundnut
Rabi Season October–March	Wheat, Gram, Rapeseeds, Mustard, Barley	Rice, Maize, Ragi, Groundnut, Jowar
Zaid Season April–June	Vegetables, Fruits, Fodder	Rice, Vegetables, Fodder

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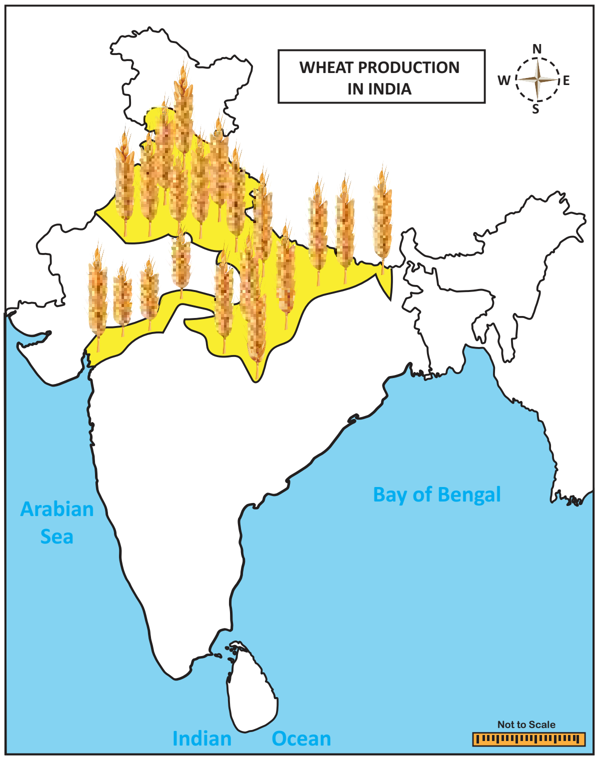
34 percent of the total production of food grains in the country. It requires 10-15°C at the time of sowing and 20-25°C at the time of ripening of grains.

Over 85% of the India's wheat production comes from 5 states namely Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Haryana, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. Apart from these regions, the black soil tract of the Deccan covering parts of Maharashtra and Gujarat also contribute a major wheat production.



Jowar

Jowar is the third important food crop of our country. It is an indigenous plant of Africa. The plant has a tendency to grow in adverse climatic conditions. Its grains are rich in carbohydrates, protein, minerals, and vitamins. Hence, it provides cheap food to the large section of the poor population. It is also used as fodder in many parts of the country. Jowar is essentially a crop of the Peninsular India. Maharashtra, Karnataka, and Madhya Pradesh are the leading producers of Jowar.

Bajra

Bajra is an indigenous plant of Africa. This forms the staple food for poor people. Its stalks are used as fodder for cattle and for thatching purposes. Bajra is a crop of dry region. Rajasthan is the largest producer of bajra followed by Uttar Pradesh, Haryana, Gujarat and Maharashtra.

Barley

Barley is one of the important cereals of our country. Besides, being poor man's diet, it is used for making barley water, beer and whiskey. Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh are the two leading producers of Barley.

Pulses

Pulses include a large number of crops which are mostly leguminous and rich in vegetable protein. They are used as human food and feeding cattle. They fix atmospheric nitrogen in the soil and hence are usually rotated with other crops. India is the largest producer of pulses.

2. Cash Crops

The crops which are cultivated for commercial purpose are called cash crops. These crops include sugarcane, tobacco, fibre crops (cotton, jute, and mesta) and oilseeds.

Sugarcane

It is the second largest producer in the world. This crop provides raw material for the sugar industry which is the second largest industrial category of our country. Besides providing sugar, gur and khandsari, it supplies molasses for alcohol industry and bagasse for paper industry. India is ranked third in sugar production in the world after Cuba and Brazil. At the state level, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar are the leading producer of sugarcane followed by Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Gujarat.

Cotton

Cotton is the most important cash crop of India. It provides raw material to the largest industry of India. India ranks second next to China in the production of cotton.

About 79% of the total area and production in the country were contributed by four states viz., Gujarat, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and Punjab.

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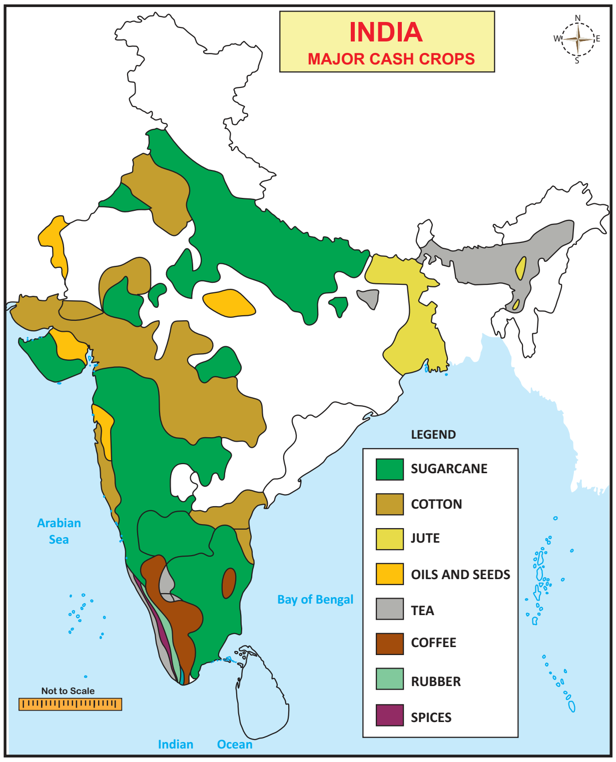
Jute

It is a tropical fibre crops, grows well in the alluvial soil. It provides raw material for Jute industry. It is used for manufacturing of gunny bags, carpets, hessian, ropes and strings, rugs, clothes, tarpaulins, upholstery etc. West Bengal is the leading state both in cultivation and production of jute. The other cultivators of jute are Bihar, Assam and Meghalaya.



Oil Seeds

Oil seeds, the premier source of fat in the Indian diet are derived from number of crops like groundnut, rapeseed, mustard, sesame, linseed, sunflower, castor seed, cotton seed, niger seed etc. These provide oil and oilcake which are used for making lubricants, varnish, medicine, perfume, candles, soaps, manure and cattle feed. Gujarat is India's largest oilseeds producing state. In groundnut production, India is the second largest producer in the world after China.

3. Plantation Crops

Plantation crops are cultivated for the purpose of exports. These are cultivated in large estates on hilly slopes. Tea, coffee, rubber and spices are the major plantation crops of India.

Tea

Tea is an evergreen plant that mainly grows in tropical and subtropical climates. Tea is a labour intensive and grows faster under light shade. Tea plants require high rainfall but its root cannot tolerate water logging. Two major varieties of tea are cultivated in India. They are

i) BOHEA - originated from China

ii) ASSAMICA - from India

A number of hybrid varieties have been developed by mixing these two. India is the second largest producer of tea after China in the world. Assam is the larger producer of tea in India. Other states are Tamil Nadu, Kerala and West Bengal.

Coffee

Coffee is grown in shade and it grows effectively in the altitudes between 1,000 and 1,500 m above mean sea level. There are two main varieties of coffee. They are

i) Arabica (High quality-cultivated more in India)

ii) Robusta (Inferior quality).

India is the 7th largest producer of coffee globally. Karnataka is the leading producer of coffee in India. It produces 71% in India, and 2.5 % in the world (source; coffee board of India-2018).

Rubber

Rubber plantation were first established in Kerala in 1902. It needs hot and wet climatic conditions (temperature above 20°C and rainfall above 300cm). Most of the land under rubber belongs to small land holders. The major rubber growing areas are Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Karnataka and Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

Spices

India has been world famous for its spices since ancient times. These spices mostly used for flavouring or tampering cooked food and for preparing medicines, dyes etc. Pepper, chillies, turmeric, ginger, cardamom, clove and areca

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nut are the major spices cultivated in India. Kerala is the leading producer of spices in India.

4. Horticulture Crops

It refers to the cultivation of fruits, flowers and vegetables. Fruits and vegetables are important supplement to the human diet, as they provide essential minerals, vitamins, and fibres required for maintaining health. India is in the second position in the production of fruits and vegetables.

3.5 Livestock

Livestock is an integral component of the farming system in India. The livestock sector is socially and economically very significant due to its multi-functional outputs and contribution to socio-cultural security. It also helps to improve food and nutritional security by providing nutrient-rich food products, generate income and employment and act as a cushion against crop failure, provide draught power and manure inputs to the crop subsector.

Cattle

Cattle constitute 37.3 percent of livestock population in India. India has second largest cattle population after Brazil at World level. Cattle population in India belongs to different breeds. These include:

1) **Milch Breed**

2) **Draught breed**

3) **Mixed or General breed.**

Goats

The goat is the poor man's cow providing milk, meat, skin and hair. It is the main source of meat for the country.

Buffaloes

Buffaloes are an important source of milk supply for India. Uttar Pradesh has the highest number of buffaloes (28.2%) followed by Rajasthan (9.6%) and Andhra Pradesh (7.9%).

Livestock Census: First Livestock Census in India was conducted with the title of Dairy Cattle Census in 1919.

DO YOU KNOW?

How is livestock census conducted in Tamil Nadu?

State Government is conducting Livestock Census with the help of Department of Animal Husbandry at state level and Regional Joint Director at Distric level under the guidelines of Government of India Ministry of Agriculture and farmers welfare, Department of Animal Husbandary Dairying and Fisheries.

Dairy, Meat and Wool Production

According to 2016-17 Census held by State /UT Animal Husbandry Department, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh.

While looking at the meat, Uttar Pradesh is the leading producer following Maharashtra and West Bengal.

The leading state in the wool production is Rajasthan followed by Karnataka

3.6 Fisheries

Fisheries in India are a very important economic activity and a flourishing sector with varied resources and potentials. Fishing in India is a major industry in its coastal states, employing over 14 million people. It produces about 3 percent of World's fish and occupies second place among the fish producing nations of the world after China. It also helps in augmenting food supply, generating employment, raising nutritional level and earning valuable foreign exchange. In India, fishing is categorised into two types: They are

1. **Marine or Sea Fisheries**

2. **Inland or Fresh Water Fisheries**

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Fisheries

1. **Marine or Sea Fisheries:** It includes coastal, off-shore and deep sea fisheries mainly on the continental shelves. Kerala leads in the marine fish production in India.
2. **Inland or Fresh Water Fisheries:** Rivers, lakes, canals, reservoirs, ponds, tanks etc. are the sources of fresh water fresh water fisheries. About 50 percent of the country's total fish production comes from the inland fisheries and Andhra Pradesh is the leading producer in India.

In India, the important varieties of fishes caught by the fisherman are Cat fish, Herrings, Mackerels, Perches, Eels, Mullets etc.

3.7 Major issues faced by farmers in india

Small and fragmented land-holdings

The problem of small and fragmented holdings is more serious in densely populated and intensively cultivated states in India.

High Costs of Inputs

Good quality seeds are out of reach for many small and marginal farmers due to their high price.

Infertile Soil

Indian soils have been used for growing crops over thousands of years without caring much for replenishing. This has led to depletion and exhaustion of soils resulting in low productivity.

Lack of Irrigation

Only one-third of the cropped area falls under irrigated area. To make agriculture reliable, irrigation facility has to be developed.

Lack of mechanization

In spite of the large scale mechanization of agriculture in some parts of the country, most of the agricultural operations in larger parts are carried on by human hand using simple and conventional tools.

Soil erosion

Large tracts of fertile land suffer from soil erosion by wind and water.

Agricultural marketing

Due to the absence of sound marketing facility, the farmers have to depend on local traders and middlemen for the disposal of their farm products which is sold at low price. Besides, there is a fluctuation in the prices of agriculture products.

Inadequate storage facilities

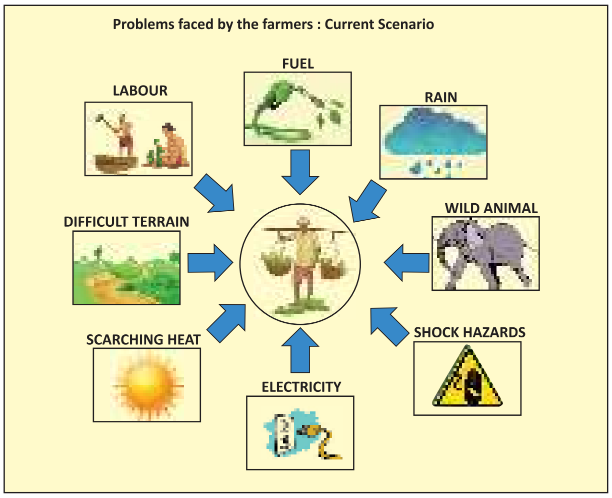
Storage facilities in the rural areas are either totally absent or grossly inadequate. Under such conditions the farmers are compelled to sell their products immediately after the harvest irrespective of the condition of market.

Inadequate transport

One of the main handicaps with Indian agriculture is the lack of cheap and efficient means of transportation.

Scarcity of capital

Agriculture is an important industry which requires a huge capital. The role of capital plays a major role in the purchase of advanced farm machineries and equipments.



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List of important Agricultural Revolutions in India	
Revolution	**Related Product**
Yellow Revolution	Oil seed Production (Especially Mustard and Sunflower)
Blue Revolution	Fish Production
Brown Revolution	Leather / Cocoa / Non-Conventional Products
Golden Fibre Revolution	Jute Production
Golden Revolution	Fruits / Honey Production / Horticulture Development
Grey Revolution	Fertilizers
Pink Revolution	Onion Production / Pharmaceuticals / Prawn Production
Silver Revolution	Egg Production / Poultry Production
Silver Fibre Revolution	Cotton
Red Revolution	Meat Production / Tomato Production
Round Revolution	Potato
Green Revolution	Food Grains
White Revolution	Milk Production

SUMMARY

- Soil is the finest particle found on the earth surface.
- The main sources of irrigation found in India are canal irrigation, well irrigation and tank irrigation etc.
- Kharif, Rabi, and Zaid are the three cropping seasons of India.
- The agricultural crops of India can be divided into food crops, cash crops, plantation crops and horticultural crops.
- Fishing in India is categorized into marine fishing and inland fishing

EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. The soil which is rich in iron oxides is ____________.

   a) Alluvial b) Black
   c) Red d) Alkaline

2. Which of the following organization has divided the Indian soils into 8 major groups?

   a) Indian Council of Agricultural Research
   b) Indian Meteorological Department
   c) Soil Survey of India
   d) Indian Institute of Soil Science

3. The soils formed by the rivers are:

   a) Red soils b) Black soils
   c) Desert soils d) Alluvial soils

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4. __________ is the highest gravity dam in India.
   a) Hirakud dam
   b) Bhakra Nangal dam
   c) Mettur dam
   d) Nagarjuna Sagar dam

5. ___________ is a cash crop.
   a) Cotton b) Wheat
   c) Rice d) Maize

6. Black soils are also called as:
   a) Arid soils b) Saline soils
   c) Regur soils d) Mountain soils

7. The longest dam in the world is ___________.
   a) Mettur dam b) Kosi dam
   c) Hirakud dam d) Bhakra-Nangal dam

8. Which crop is called as "Golden Fibre" in India?
   a) Cotton b) Wheat
   c) Jute d) Tobacco

II Consider the given statements and choose the right option given below

1. **Assertion (A):** Horticulture involves cultivation of fruits, vegetables, and flowers.

   Reason (R): India ranks first in the world in the production of mango, banana, and citrus fruits.

   (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) explains (A)

   (b) Both (A) and (R)are true: (R) does not explain (A)

   (c) (A) is correct (R) is false

   (d) (A) is false (R) is true

2. **Assertion (A):** Alluvial soil is formed by the deposition of eroded and decayed materials brought by the rivers.

   Reason (R): Paddy and wheat are grown well in the soil.

   (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) explains (A)

   (b) Both (A) and (R)are true and (R) does not explain (A)

   (c) (A) is correct (R) is false

   (d) (A) is false (R) is true

III Pick the odd one out

1. a) Wheat b) Rice
   c) Millets d) Coffee
2. a) Khadar b) Bhangar
   c) Alluvial soil d) Black soil
3. a) Inundational canals
   b) Perennial canals
   c) Tanks
   d) Canals

IV Match the following

1.	Sugar bowl of India	-	Mahanadi
2.	Coffee	-	Golden revolution
3.	Tehri	-	Karnataka
4.	Hirakud	-	Uttar Pradesh and Bihar
5.	Horticulture	-	Highest dam in the India

V Answer in brief

1. Define soil.
2. Name the types of soil found in India.
3. State any two characteristics of black cotton soil.
4. Define Agriculture.
5. State the types of agriculture practices in India.
6. Name the seasons of agriculture in India?
7. Mention the plantation crops of India.
8. Write a brief note on the categories of fisheries in India?

VI Give reasons

1. Agriculture is the backbone of India.
2. Rain water harvesting is necessary.

VII Distinguish between the following

1. Rabi and Kharif crop seasons.
2. Inundational canal and perennial canal.
3. Marine fishing and Inland fishing.
4. Alluvial soils and Black soils.

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VIII Answer in a paragraph

1. State any five types of soil in India and explain the characteristics and distribution of soil.
2. What is Multipurpose projects and write about any two Multipurpose projects of India.
3. Bring out the characteristics of Intensive and mixed farming.
4. Examine the geographical conditions favourable for the cultivation of rice and wheat.

IX Hot questions

1. Can you imagine a world without agriculture?
2. Can you give solutions for the prevailing water disputes in South India?

X Map exercise

1. Demarcate the major tracts of alluvial soils.
2. Delineate the main regions of black soil.
3. Locate the Hirakud dam, Mettur dam and Damodar dam.
4. Shade the regions of jute cultivation..
5. Mark any three tea and coffee growing areas.
6. Demarcate the regions of desert soil.
7. Locate the fishing hubs: Tuticorin, Chennai, Cochin, Mumbai, Machilipatnam
8. Demarcate: Cauveri delta, Godavari delta

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Unit - 4

India - Resources and Industries

Learning Objectives

- To learn about the resource and its types.
- To understand the concept of renewable and non- renewable resources.
- To identify the different types and distribution of industries in India.
- To analyse the problems of Indian industries.

TCD5Z

Introduction

Any matter or energy derived from the environment that is used by living things including humans is called a natural resource. Natural resources include air, water, soil, minerals, fossil fuels, plants, wild life etc. Many natural resources are used as raw materials. They play a vital role in the economic development of any region. Natural resources are classified on several basis. Based on continued availability, the resources are categorised into two types. Renewable Resources are those which have natural regeneration after their utilisation.

Solar energy, wind energy, biogas, tidal energy, wave energy etc. are the renewable resources. Non- Renewable resources are the sources that cannot be replaced again after utilisation. Coal, petroleum, natural gas etc. fall under this category.

4.1 Minerals

Mineral is a natural substance of organic or inorganic origin with definite chemical and physical properties. The process of extracting mineral from the earth is known as mining. The mines near the earth crust are known as open pit mines while the deep mines are known as shaft mines.

DO YOU KNOW?

The organisations associated with minerals in India are

1. The Geological Survey of India Headquarter is at Calcutta
2. Indian Bureau of Mines Headquarter at Nagpur
3. Non-Ferrous Material Technology Development Centre NFTDC, Hyderabad.
4. The Ministry of Mines is responsible for the administration of all mines and minerals (Development and Regulation Act, 1957).

Types of Minerals

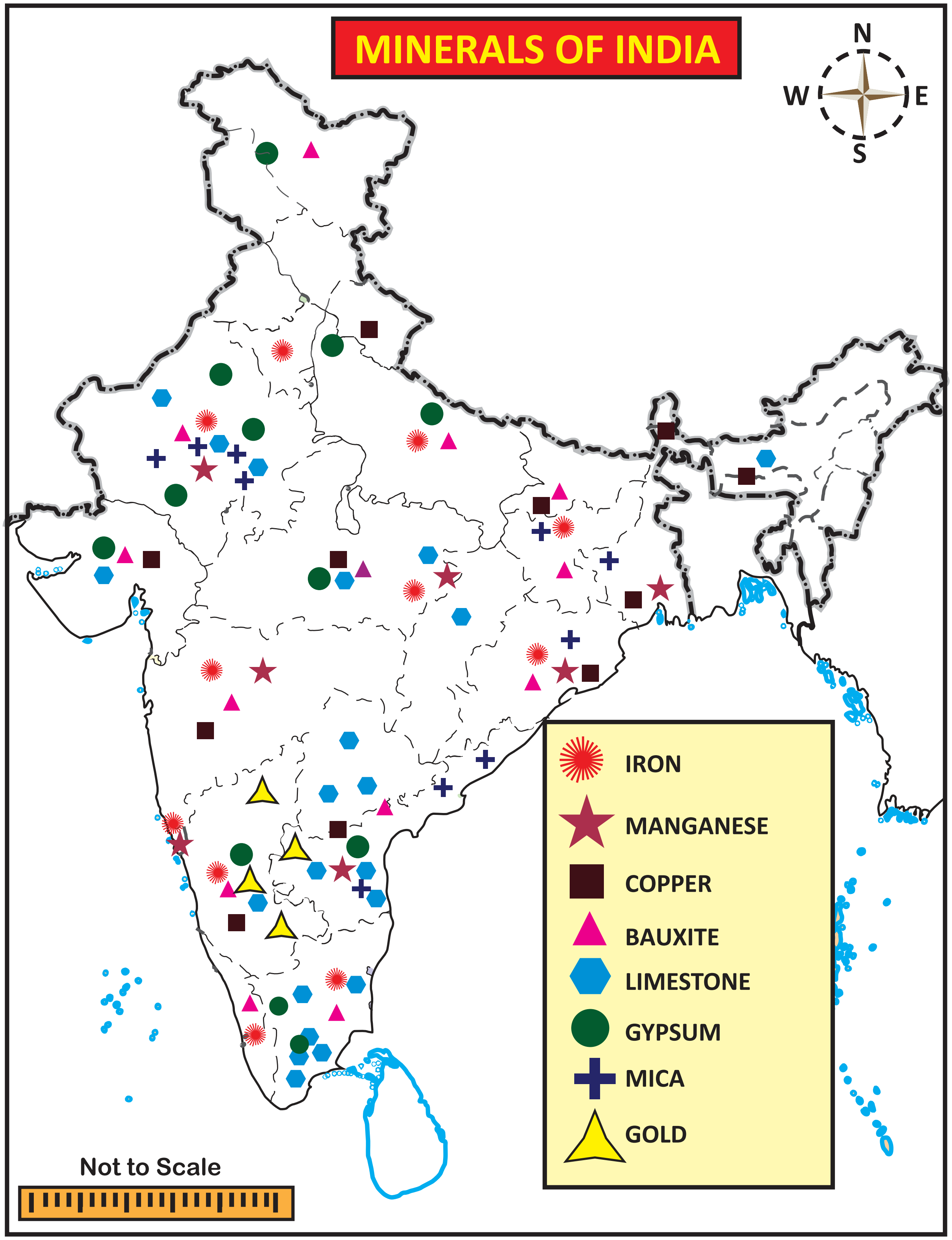
On the basis of chemical and physical properties, minerals are broadly grouped under two categories. They are metallic and non-metallic minerals.

a) Metallic Minerals

Metallic minerals are the minerals which contain one or more metallic elements in them. Metallic minerals occur in rare, naturally formed concentrations known as mineral deposits. These deposits consist of a variety of valuable metals such as iron, manganese, copper, bauxite, nickel, zinc, lead, gold etc.

1. Iron ore

Iron ore is the most widely distributed elements of the earth crust, rarely occurs in a



The iron is usually found in following form.

Form of Iron ores	Iron Content (%)
Magnetite	72.4%
Hematite	69.9%
Goethite	62.9%
Limonite	55%
Siderite	48.2%

free state. It enters into the composition of many rocks and minerals especially from igneous and metamorphic rocks. The total recoverable reserves of iron ore in India are haematite and magnetite

Jharkhand is the leading producer of iron ore with 25% the country's production. Singhbhum, Hazaribagh, Dhanbad and Ranchi districts are its major producers. Odisha with 21% production ranks second. Sundargarh, Mayurbhanj, Sambalpur and Keonjhar districts are its major producers. The magnetite production of Chhattisgarh is 18% (Rajgarh and Bilaspur are its leading districts) and the Karnataka is 20% (Chikmangalur, Chitradurga, Shimoga and Dharwad districts are its major producers). Andhrapradesh and Tamil Nadu produce about 5% each. Kurnool, Guntur, Cuddapah and Anantapur districts in Andhra Pradesh and Salem, Namakkal, Tiruvannamalai, Tiruchirappalli, Coimbatore, Madurai and Tirunelveli districts in Tamil Nadu are notable for the production of iron ore.

SAIL (Steel Authority of India Limited): The Ministry of Steel is responsible for planning and development of iron and steel industry in India.

2. Manganese

Manganese is a silvery grey element. It is very hard and brittle in nature. It is always available in combination with iron, laterite and other minerals. It is an important mineral used for making iron and steel and serves as basic raw material for alloying. It is the most important mineral for making iron and steel. Nearly 10 kg manganese is required for manufacturing one ton of steel. It is also used in the manufacturing of bleaching powder, insecticides, paints and batteries.

MOIL- Manganese Ore India Limited state-owned manganese-ore mining company headquartered in Nagpur. With a market share of 50%. It was the largest producer of manganese ore in India.

Manganese deposits occur mainly as metamorphosed bedded sedimentary deposits. The largest deposits of manganese is found in Odisha followed by Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Goa, Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Rajasthan, Gujarat, Telengana and West Bengal together constitute about 2% of the India's manganese resource. India is the fifth largest producer of manganese in the world.

3. Copper

Copper is the first metal that prehistoric man has started using for many purposes. Being flexible, it can be made into utensils of any shape. Brass and Bronze are obtained when the copper alloys with zinc and tin respectively. Copper has been commonly used for making cooking utensils and other objects of common utility. In modern days, it is extensively used in vast variety of electrical machinery, wires and cables

Largest reserves of copper ore is in the state of Rajasthan followed by Jharkhand and Madhya Pradesh. The states of Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Haryana, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Odisha, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Telangana, Uttarakhand

Hindustan Copper Ltd is a Government-owned-corporation in the central public Enterprise under the Ministry of minies, India.

and West Bengal account for 7.9% of the total copper reserves of India.

4. Bauxite

Bauxite is an important ore from which aluminium is extracted. It is found in the rock consisting mainly of hydrated aluminium oxides. Bauxite is widely distributed as surface deposits in the areas of laterite soil. Being light in weight and tough, aluminium is used in the manufacture of aircraft s and automobile engines. Bauxite is also used in the manufacture of cement and chemicals.

DO YOU KNOW?

Bauxite is an oxide of aluminium; the name has been derived after the French word Le Baux.

The main bauxite deposits occur in Odisha, Gujarat (Junagadh, Amreli and Bhavnagar districts), Jharkhand (Ranchi and Gumila districts), Maharashtra (Sindhu durg and Ratnagiri), Chhattisgarh (Ballarpur and Durg districts), and Tamil nadu.

National Aluminium Company Limited, abbreviated as NALCO, (incorporated 1981) has units in Odisha at places like Angul and Damanjodi. It was incorporated as a public sector enterprise of the Ministry of Mines, Government of India in 1981.

b) Non-Metallic Minerals

These minerals do not contain metal in them. Mica, limestone, gypsum, nitrate, potash, dolomite, coal, petroleum etc are the non-metallic minerals.

Mica

In ancient time, Mica was used in ayurvedic medicine. Mica became very popular with the development of electrical industry. Abhrak is a good quality mica. It is translucent, easily splitable into thin sheets, flat, colourless, elastic and incompressible. Mica is used in making of insulating properties, as it withstands high voltage and has low power loss factor. Since it is a non conductor of electricity, it is exclusively used in electrical goods. It is also used in making of lubricants, medicines, paints and varnishes.

The major deposits of mica are found in Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, Odisha and Jharkhand.

Lime Stone

Limestone is associated with rocks composed of either calcium carbonate or the double carbonate of calcium and magnesium or mixture of both. Limestone also contains small quantities of silica, alumina, iron oxides, phosphorous and sulphur.

Limestone is used in the industries of chemicals for soda ash, caustic soda, bleaching powder, paper, cement, iron and steel, glass and fertilizers. The major producing areas: Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Meghalaya, Gujarat and Chhattisgarh

Gypsum

Gypsum is a hydrated sulphate of calcium which occurs as white, opaque or transparent minerals in beds of sedimentary rocks such as limestone, sandstone and shale. Gypsum is used in the manufacture of cement, fertilizers, wall board, plaster of paris and in soil conditioning. Rajasthan, Tamil nadu, Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Uttarakhand, Andhra Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh are the major producers.

4.2 Energy Resources

The resources from which the electricity generated are called energy resources. Electricity is an important component of our life. No day to day activity takes without the use of this energy. It is also the key factor for all economic activities and industrial development. Energy resources can be

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classified into renewable and non-renewable. Coal, petroleum, natural gas and nuclear minerals are the sources of non renewable energy. Water, sun light, wind, bio gas, tides etc., are the sources of renewable energy.

Non-Renewable Energy Resources

a) Coal

Coal is an inflammable organic substance composed mainly of hydrocarbons.

Coal is available in the form of sedimentary rocks. It is used in the generation of thermal power. It has close association with the industrial development of any country. Based on carbon content, it is classified in to the following types.

Anthracite: 80 to 90%

Bituminous: 60 to 80%

Lignite: 40 to 60%

Peat: less than 40%

Coal is an important source of energy in India with its varied and innumerable uses. It can be converted into gas, oil, electricity and thermal power. Besides, it forms a basic raw material for the production of chemicals, dyes, fertilizers, paints, synthetic and explosives.

Indian coal is mostly associated with Gondwana series of rocks and is primarily found in Peninsular India. The states of Jharkhand, odisha, West Bengal and Madhya Pradesh alone account for nearly 90% of coal reserves of the country. About 2% of India's coal is of tertiary type and is found mostly in Assam and Jammu & Kashmir.

Coal India Limited (CIL) is an Indian state-controlled coal mining company headquartered in Kolkata, West Bengal.

Jharkhand is the largest coal producing state in the country followed by odisha, Chhattisgarh, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra.

Indian lignite (brown coal) deposits occur in the southern and western parts of Peninsular India particularly in Tamil nadu, Pudhucherry and Kerala.

The Ministry of coal has over all responsibility of determining policies and strategies in respect of exploration and development of coal resource in India. Coal India Limited (CIL), NLC India Limited (NLCIL) and Singareni Collieries Company limited (SCCL) are its public sector under takings.

b) Petroleum (or) Crude oil

The word petroleum has been derived from two Latin words petro (meaning – Rock) and oleum (meaning oil). Thus petroleum is oil obtained from rocks of the earth. Therefore, it is also called mineral oil. Petroleum is an inflammable liquid that is composed of hydrocarbons which constitute 90-95% of petroleum and the remaining is chiefly organic compounds containing oxygen, nitrogen, sulphur and traces of organ metallic compounds.

The Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas (MOP&NG) is a ministry of the Government of India. It is responsible for the exploration, production, refining, distribution, marketing, import, export, and conservation of petroleum, natural gas, petroleum products, and liquefied natural gas in India.

India - Oil refinery

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Offshore oil fields	Onshore oil Fields
Mumbai high oil fields (largest 65%)	Bharmaputra valley (Dibrugarh and Sibsagar districts of upper Assam.)
Gujarat coast (2nd largest)	Digboi oil feilds (oldest fields in country)
Basseim oil feild, south of Mumbai high	Nahoratiya oil fields (south west of digboi)
Aliabet oil feild, south of Bhavanagar	Moran-Hugrijan oil field (Southwest of Nahoratiya)
Andaman and Nicobar, Gulf of mannar	Rudrasagar-Lawa oil feilds (sibsagar districs of Assam)
Cambay-Luni Region	Surma valley in Manipur

Petroleum is used as a source of power and fuel for automobiles, aeroplanes, ships and locomotives. Lubricants, kerosene, vaseline, tar, soap, terylene and wax are its by products. Oil in India is obtained from both from on-shore and off-shore areas.

c) Natural Gas

Natural gas usually accompanies the petroleum accumulations. It is naturally occurring hydro carbon gas mixture consisting primarily of methane, but commonly includes varying amounts of other higher alkanes and sometimes a small percentage of carbon dioxide, nitrogen and hydrogen sulphides. It is formed when layers of decomposed plants and animals are exposed to intense heat and pressure over thousands of years. It is used as a source of energy for heating, cooking and electricity generation. It is also used as fuel for vehicles and as a chemical feedstock in the manufacture of plastics and other commercially important organic chemicals.

GAIL (formerly known as Gas Authority of India Limited) is the largest state-owned natural gas processing and distribution company in India. It is headquartered in New Delhi.

India has a very large proportion of tertiary rock and alluvial deposits particularly in the extra peninsular India. These sedimentary rocks, which were once under the shallow seas, hold the possibility of harbouring oil and gas deposits. The highest concentration of natural gas is found in the Mumbai high and basseim oil fields. Gujarat, Assam, Neypaltur, Mangmadam in Thanjavur district in Tamil nadu, Tripura, Rajasthan, Arunachal Pradesh, Punjab, West Bengal are the other areas where natural gas reserves have been discovered.

Compressed natural gas (CNG) (methane stored at high pressure) is a fuel which can be used in place of gasoline, diesel fuel and propane/LPG. In comparison to other fuels, natural gas poses less of a threat in the event of a spill, because it is lighter than air and disperses quickly when released. Biomethane – cleaned-up biogas from anaerobic digestion or landfills – can be used. Natural gas run vehicles are increasingly used in Delhi, Ahmedabad, Mumbai, Pune, Kolkata Lucknow, Kanpur, Varanasi, etc.

d) Thermal power

Thermal power is generated using fossil fuels like coal, diesel, petroleum and Natural gas. National Thermal Power Corporation

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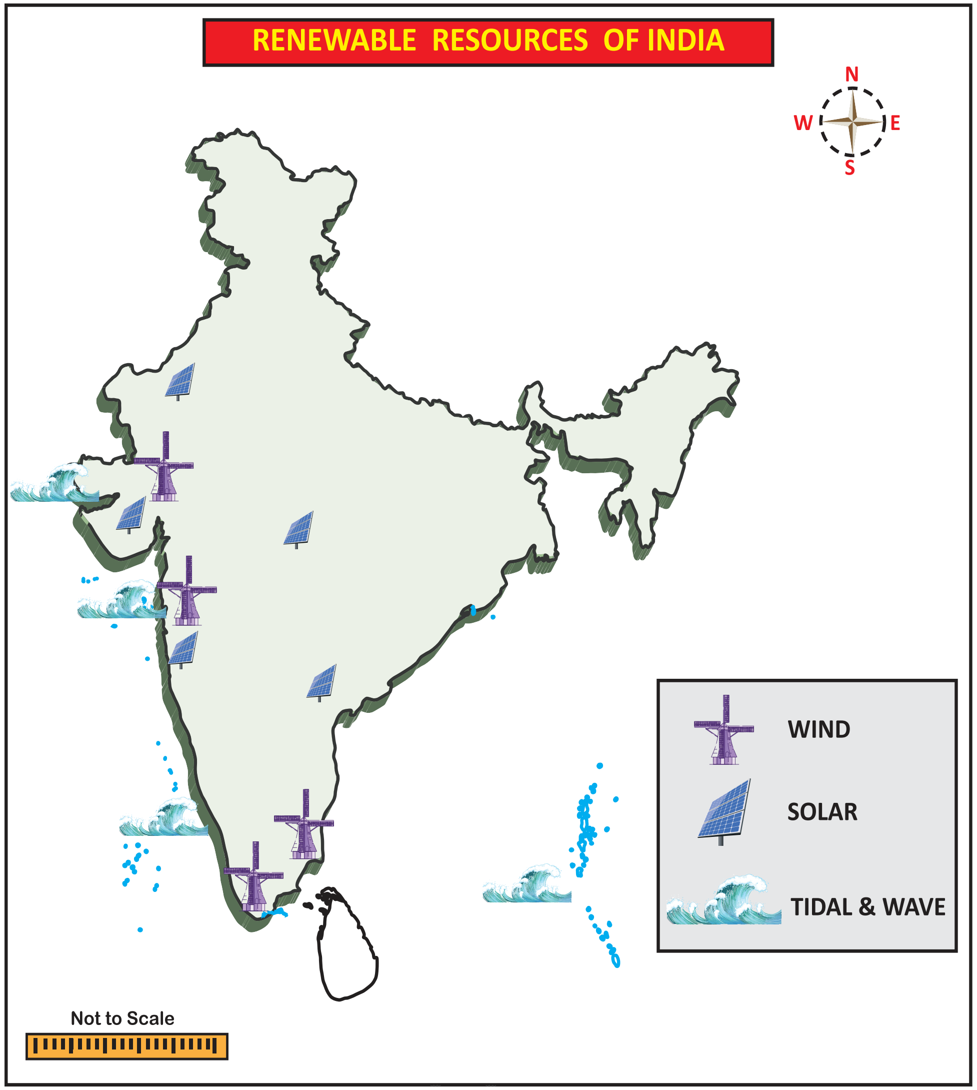

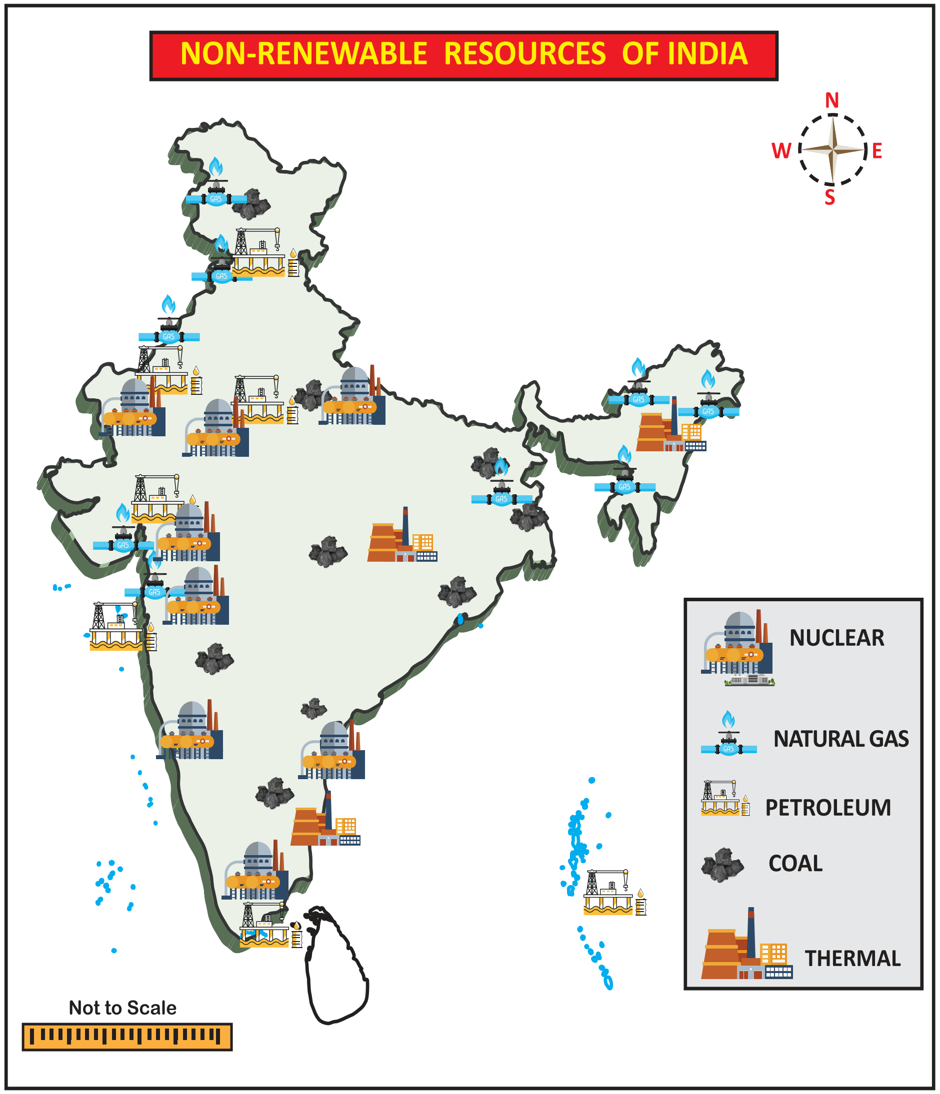

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[NTPC] was established in 1975. At present NTPC has 13 coal based super thermal power projects and 7 gas / liquid fuel based combined cycle projects in the states of Assam, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Mizoram and West Bengal. Neyveli, Mettur, Thoothukudi and Ennore (Chennai) are the important thermal power stations in Tamil nadu.

e) Nuclear power

The energy released during nuclear fission or fusion is used to generate electricity. Nuclear energy is generated mainly from the minerals of Uranium and Thorium. The first nuclear power station was setup at Tarapur near Mumbai in 1969. Later atomic reactors were installed at Rawatbhata (335 MW), near Kota in Rajasthan (100 MW), Kalpakkam (440 MW) and Kudankulam (2,000 MW) in Tamil nadu and Narora (235 MW) in Uttar Pradesh, Kaiga in (235 MW) in Karnataka and Kakarapara (235 MW) in Gujarat.

The Nuclear Power Corporation of India Limited (NPCIL) is an Indian public sector undertaking based in Mumbai, Maharashtra. It is wholly owned by the Government of India and is responsible for the generation of nuclear power for electricity.

Renewable Energy Resources

a) Hydro power

Power generated from water is termed as hydroelectricity. Hydro power is the energy harnessed from running water. Hydro power is considered as one of the most economic and non-polluting sources of energy. It contributes nearly 7% of global electricity production. The cost of production of hydroelectricity is relatively low, making it a competitive source of renewable energy. It is also a flexible mode of power generation as the quantity of production can either be increased or decreased very quickly adapting to changing demands.

DO YOU KNOW?

The first hydro-electric power station in India was established at "Darjeeling" in 1897.

National Hydroelectric Power Corporation is located in Faridabad, India

b) Solar Energy

Solar energy is a non conventional energy obtained by the conversion of sunlight into electricity, either directly using photovoltaics (PV) or indirectly using concentrated solar power (CSP). Concentrated solar power systems use lenses or mirrors and tracking system to focus a large area of sunlight into a small beam. Photovoltaics convert light into an electric current using the photovoltaic effect.

Solar Energy Corporation of India Limited is a Government of India Enterprise.Its head quarter is located at New Delhi.

The mass objectives of the solar thermal energy programme, being implemented by the Ministry of Non-Conventional Energy Source (MNES) are market development, commercialisation and utilisation of heat energy requirement of different applications in domestic, institutional and industrial sectors. Solar power is used in water heaters, refrigerators, drying, street lighting, cooking, pumping, power generator, photovoltaic cells, salon parts etc. Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh are the major solar power producers.

c) Wind Energy

Wind energy is extracted from air flow using wind turbines. It is a cheap and pollution free source of energy. Power from wind mills are used for pumping water and to sail propel ships. Wind power is plentiful, renewable, widely distributed, clean and produces no greenhouse

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gas emissions during operation. These plants occupy only a less space.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** Tamil nadu has the largest installation of wind turbines in the country in the Aralvoimozhi area near Kanniyakumari is the largest concentrations of wind farm capacity at a single location in the world.

The development of wind power in India began in 1986 with first wind farms were set up in coastal areas of Gujarat (Okha), Maharashtra (Ratnagiri) and Tamil nadu (Thoothukudi) with 55 KW Vestas wind turbines. The capacity has significantly increased in the last few years. India has the fourth largest installed wind power capacity in the world.

> The National Institute of Wind Energy (NIWE), Chennai was established in Tamil Nadu in 1998 as an autonomous institution under the administrative control of the Ministry of New and Renewable Energy. NIWE main activities include resource assessment testing and certification.

d) Biomass Energy

Bio energy may be obtained through bio-degradable materials like animal dung, kitchen wastes, water hyacinth, agricultural residues and city wastes etc. It is clean and cheap source of energy. Energy derived from biomass is mostly used for domestic purposes.

e) Tidal and wave Energy

There are two main sources of ocean energy. They are Ocean tides and Ocean waves. The Gulf of Cambay is the best suited area for tidal energy. This is followed by Gulf of Kachch (1,000MW) and sunderbans (100MW).

An wave energy power plant of 150 KW(maximum) has been installed at vizhinjam near Thiruvananthapuram. An another plant of this kind has been set up near Andaman& Nicobar Islands.

4.3 Industries

It refers to the activities which converts the raw materials into finished products. This sector is called as the value addition sector. On the basis of the source of raw materials, Industries are classified into the Agro based industries, Forest based industries and Mineral based industries.

Agro based industries

These industries draw their raw materials from agricultural sector. The following part discusses the agro based industries in India.

a) Cotton Textile Industry

Textile is a broad term which includes cotton, jute, wool, silk and synthetic fibre textiles. This sector in India is the second largest in the world.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** The first cotton textile mill was established at Fort Gloster near Kolkata in 1818.

Traditional sectors like hand loom, handicrafts and small power-loom units are the biggest source of employment for millions of people in rural and semi urban areas.

Currently, India is the third largest producer of cotton and has the largest loom arc and ring spindles in the world. At present, cotton textile industry is the largest organized modern industry of India.

> Ginning is the process of separating cotton seed from cotton.

The higher concentration of textile mills in and around Mumbai, makes it as "**Manchester of India**". Presence of black cotton soil in

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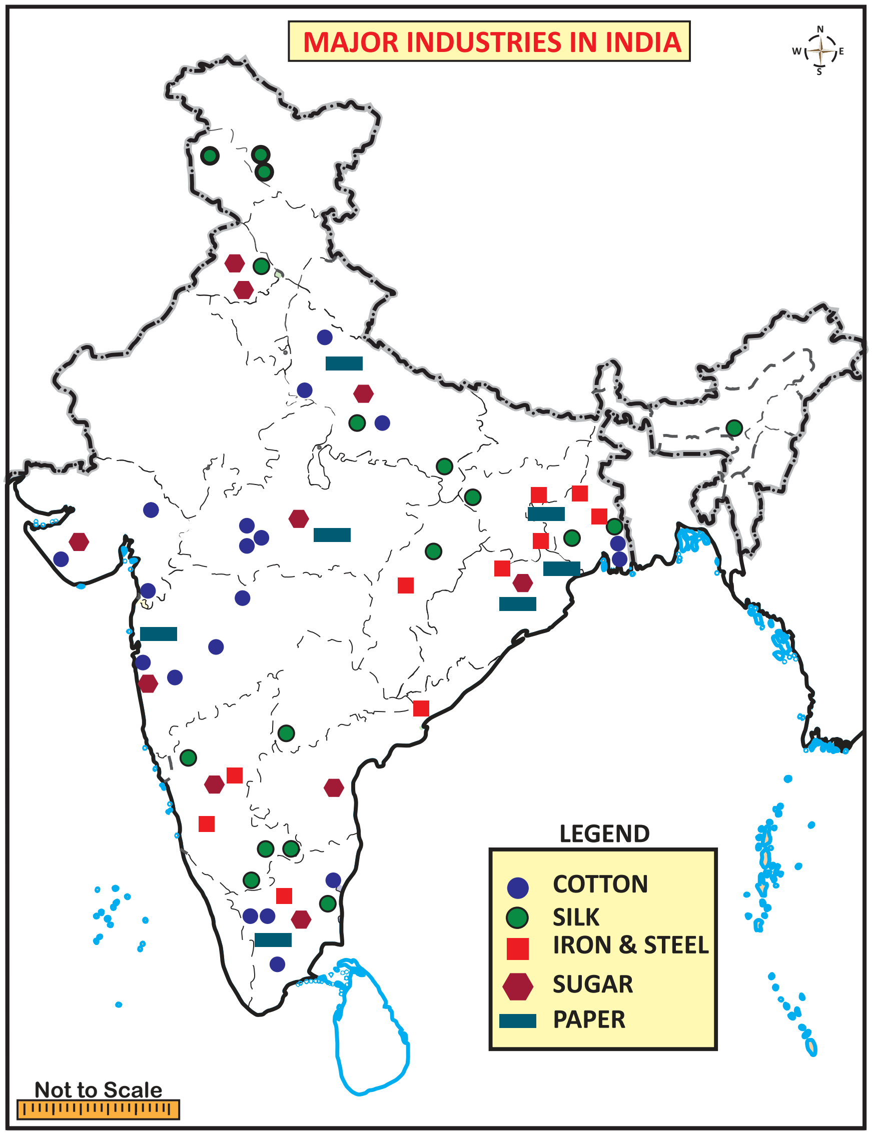

Maharastra, humid climate, presence of Mumbai port, availability of hydro power, good market and well developed transport facility favour the cotton textile industries in Mumbai.

The major cotton textile industries are concentrated in the states of Maharashtra, Gujarat, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Tamil nadu. Coimbatore is the most important centre in Tamil nadu with 200 mills out of its 435 and called as "**Manchester of South India**". Erode, Tirupur, Karur, Chennai, Thirunelveli, Madurai, Thoothukudi, Salem and Virudhunagar are the other major cotton textiles centres in the state.

b) Jute Textiles

Jute is a low priced fibre used mainly for making package materials like gunny bags. Today jute is blended with cotton and wool to produce textiles. This is the second important textile industry in India after cotton textiles. Jute is the golden fibre which meets all the standards of goods packing with its natural, renewable, bio degradable and eco-friendly products.

The first jute mill in India was established at Rishra near, Kolkata in 1854 by the English man George Auckland. India tops in the production of raw jute and jute goods and second in the export of jute goods next to Bangladesh. Jute production includes gunny bags, canvas, pack sheets, jute web, carpets, cordage, hessians and twines. Now jute is also being used in plastic furniture and insulation bleached fibres to blend with wool. It is also mixed with cotton to make

National jute board is headquarter at Kolkata.

NATIONAL JUTE BOARD

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CSTRI is the only research institute in the country dedicated to the Research & Developmental activities related to silk technology. CSTRI was established in the year 1983 by the Central Silk Board, Ministry of Textiles, Govt. of India having head quarter at Bengaluru

carpet and blankets. The major jute producing areas are in West Bengal and concentrated along the Hooghly river within the radius of six kilometre of Kolkata. Titagarh, Jagatdat, Budge-Budge, Haora and Bhadreshwar are the chief centres of jute industry. Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Chhattisgarh and Odisha are the other jute goods producing areas.

c) Silk Industry

India has been well known for the production of silk since the ancient times. India is the second largest producer of raw silk next only to China.

Karnataka is the largest producer of silk. Other major producers of silk are West Bengal, Jammu Kashmir, Bihar, Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Assam and Tamil nadu states.

DO YOU KNOW?

Office of the Development Commissioner for Handlooms was set up as an attached non-participating office on 20th November, 1975 under the Ministry of Commerce. At present it is functioning under the Ministry of Textiles, headquarters at Udyog Bhawan, New Delhi.

d) Sugar Industry

Sugar can be produced from sugar cane, sugar-beets or any other crop which have sugar content. In India, sugar cane is the main source of sugar. At presend this is the second largest agro based industry of India after cotton textiles. India is the world's second largest producer of sugar cane after Brazil. Sugar industry is decentralized and located near the sugarcane growing areas as they are weight loosing and bulky to transport.

Uttar Pradesh is the largest producer of sugar, producing about 50% of the country's total. Other major producers are Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil nadu, Bihar, Punjab, Gujarat, Haryana and Madhya Pradesh states. These states account for more than 90% of the sugar mills and sugar production.

Forest based industries

Forest provide us with different types of material which are used as raw material for certain industries like paper, lac, sports goods, plywood etc.

a) Paper industry

Paper Industry produces numerous types of papers that comes in various use such as sheet paper, paper boxes, tissues, paper bags, stationery, envelopes and printed-paper products such as books, periodicals, and newspapers. In India the Soft wood is the principal raw material used for making paper especially newsprint and high class printing papers. Paper is the pre-requisite for education and literacy and its use is an index of advancement in these two fields as well as the overall well being of the society.

Paper Industry in India

DO YOU KNOW?

The first paper mill of India was started in 1812 at Serampore in West Bengal.

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The first successful effort was made in 1867 with the setting up of the Royal Bengal paper mills at Ballyganj near Kolkata. The raw materials for paper industry includes wood pulp, bamboo, salai and sabai grasses, waste paper and bagasse. West Bengal is the largest producer of paper in the country followed by Madhya Pradesh, Odisha and Tamil nadu.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** National Newsprint and Paper Mills (NEPA) is at Nepanagar in Burhanpur District of Madhya Pradesh.

Mineral based industries

Mineral based industries use both metallic & non metallic minerals as raw materials. The major mineral based industry of country is the iron steel industry

a) Iron and steel industries

Iron and steel industry is called a basic metallurgical industry as its finished product is used as raw material by host of other industries. Several industries like engineering, heavy machines and machine tools, automobile, locomotives and railway equipment industries use iron and steel as their primary raw material. Due to this, the steel producing capacity of a country is generally taken as an indicator of its level of industrial development.

> **DO YOU KNOW?** The first attempt to produce iron and steel unit was set up at Porto Novo in Tamil nadu in 1830.

The modernization of the industry was started in 1907 with the establishment of Tata Iron and Steel Company at Sakchi, now called Jamshedpur. Iron and steel industry of India is mainly concentrated in the states of Jharkhand, West Bengal and Odisha. Proximity to the coal fields of Jharia, Raniganj, Bokaro and Karanpura and the iron ore mines of Mayurbhanj, Keonjar and Brona are responsible for this. This area also has sufficient deposits of limestone, dolomite, manganese and silicon which are required for the industry.

Automobile Industry

India is set to emerge not only as a large domestic market for automobile manufacturers, but also as a crucial link in the global automotive chain. It is one of the most dynamic industrial groups in India.

The first automobile industry of India was started in 1947. The industry is the Premier Automobiles Ltd located at Kurla (Mumbai). It was followed by the Hindustan Motors Ltd at Uttarpara (Kolkata) in 1948. At present, India is the 7th largest producer of automobile manufacturers which include two wheelers, commercial vehicles, passenger car, jeep, scooty, scooters, motor cycles, mopeds and three wheelers. Major centres are at Mumbai, Chennai, Jamshedpur, Jabalpur, Kolkata, Pune, New Delhi, Kanpur, Bengaluru, Sadara, Lucknow and Mysuru.

> Chennai is nicknamed as the "Detroit of Asia" due to the presence of major automobile manufacturing units and allied industries around the city.

Tata Motors, Maruti Suzuki, Mahindra & Mahindra and Hindustan Motors are the largest passenger car manufacturers of Indian companies in the country. Presence of foreign car companies such as Mercedes Benz, Fiat, General Motors, Toyota and the recent entry of passenger car manufacturers BMW, Audi, Volkswagen and Volvo makes the Indian automobile sector a special one. Tata Motors, Ashok Leyland, Eicher Motors, Mahindra & Mahindra and Ford Motors are the major Indian companies which manfacture commercial vehicles. MAN, ITEC, Mercedes-Benz, Scania and Hyundai are the foreign companies engage in the manfacture of commercial vehicles. Two-wheeler manufacturing is dominated by Indian companies like Hero, Bajaj Auto and TVS.

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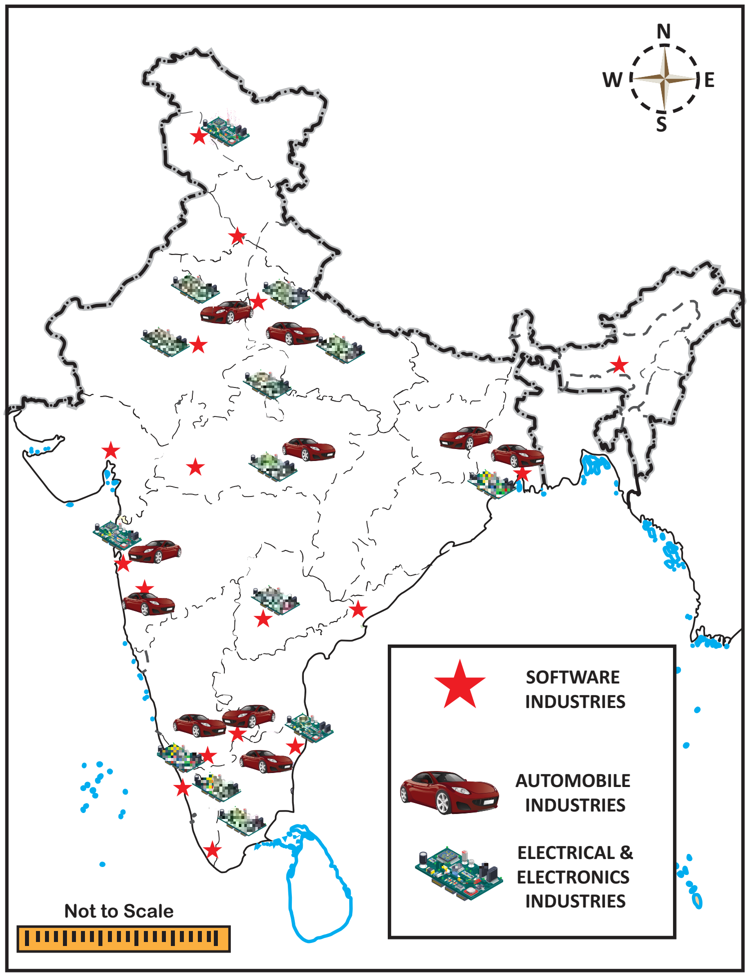
S.No	Name of Industry	Place	Establishment Year	Product
1	Tata Iron and Steel Company(TISCO)	Jamshedpur, Jharkhand	1907	Pig Iron
2	Indian Iron and Steel Company (IISCO)	Burnpur,Hirapur, Kulti, West Bengal	1972	Pig Iron & Crude steel
3	Visweshwaraya Iron Steel Ltd(VISL)	Bhadravati,Karnataka	1923	Alloy and Sponge steel
4	Hisdustan Steel Ltd (HSL) Collaborated with Russia	Bhilai, Chattisgarh	1957	Railway Equipments and Ship Building
5	Hindustan Steel Ltd(HSL) Collaborated with Germany	Rourkela,Odisha	1965	Hot and Cold rolled sheets, Galvanized sheets and electrical plates
6	Hindustal Steel Ltd(HSL) Collaborated with United kingdom	Durgapur,West Bengal	1959	Alloy steel, Construction materials and railway equipments
7	Hisdustan Steel Ltd(HSL) Collaborated with Russia	Bokaro, Jharkhand	1972	Sludge and Slog
8	Salem Steel Ltd	Salem, Tamil Nadu	1982	Stainless Steel
9	Vijayanagar Steel Plant	Tornagal,Karnataka	1994	Flat steel and Long Steel
10	Visakhapatnam Steel Plant(VSP)	Visakhapatnam, Andhra Pradesh	1981	Hot Metal

MAJOR ELECTRICAL & ELECTRONICS, SOFTWARE AND AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRIES IN INDIA



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Electrical and Electronic Industries

Heavy electrical industries manufacture equipment used for power generation, transmission and utilization. Turbines for steam and hydro power plants, boilers for thermal power plants, generators, transformers, switch gears etc. are the chief products of this industry. The most important company in the field of heavy electrical is Bharat Heavy Electricals Ltd (BHEL). It has its plants at Hardwar, Bhopal, Hyderabad, Jammu, Bengaluru, Jhansi and Tiruchirappalli. This Industry covers a wide range of products including television sets, transistor sets, telephone exchanges, cellular telegram, computers and varied equipments for post and railway, defence and meteorological department.

Bengaluru is the largest producer of electronic goods in India, hence it is called as the "Electronic Capital of India". The other major producers of electronic goods centers are Hyderabad, Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata, Kanpur, Pune, Lucknow, Jaipur and Coimbatore.

DO YOU KNOW?

Make in India program was launched in 2014 to put India on the world map as a major hub for global design and manufacturing.

Software Industry

India is home to some of the finest software companies in the world. The software companies in India are reputed across the globe for their efficient IT and business related solutions. The Indian Software Industry has brought about a tremendous success for the emerging economy.

In India, software industry began in 1970 with the entry of Tata Consultancy Services (TCS). Along with this, L & T, Infotech, i-Flex, Accenture, Cognizant, GalexE Solutions India Pvt Ltd and ITC Infotech are the major software industries in the country. At present, there are more than 500 software companies all over India. It exports software service to nearly 95 countries in the world.

The main centres of IT parks are located in Chennai, Coimbatore, Thiruvananthapuram, Bengaluru, Mysuru, Hyderabad, Visakhapatnam, Mumbai, Pune, Indore, Gandhi Nagar, Jaipur, Noida, Mohali and Srinagar.

Major challenges of Indian Industries

Industries in India face many problems. Some major problems are listed below.

- Shortage and fluctuation in Power Supply.
- Non- availability of large blocks of land.
- Poor access to credit.
- High rate of interest for borrowed loan.
- Non- availability of cheap labourers.
- Lack of technical and vocational training for employees.
- Inappropriate living conditions nearby industrial estates.

Challenges of Indian Industries

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SUMMARY

- Natural resource - raw materials obtained naturally from the earth.
- Renewable resource – the resources that can be replenished.
- Non renewable resource - the energy that cannot be replenished easily.
- Agro based industry – the industries that depend on agriculture for their raw materials.
- Mineral based industries – the industries that use minerals as raw materials.
- Forest based industries – the industries run with the help of forest products.

EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. Manganese is used in______.
   a) Paper industry
   b) Steel Making
   c) Copper smelting
   d) Petroleum Refining
2. The Anthracite coal has ___________.
   a) 80 to 90% Carbon
   b) Above 70% Carbon
   c) 60 to 70% Carbon
   d) Below 50% Carbon
3. The most important constituents of petroleum are hydrogen and
   a) Oxygen b) Water
   c) Carbon d) Nitrogen
4. The city which is called as the Manchester of South India is
   a) Chennai b) Salem
   c) Madurai d) Coimbatore
5. The first Nuclear Power station was commissioned in
   a) Gujarat b) Rajasthan
   c) Maharashtra d) Tamil nadu
6. The most abundant source of energy is
   a) Bio mass b) Sun
   c) Coal d) Oil
7. The nucleus for the development of the chotanagpur plateau region is
   a) Transport
   b) Mineral Deposits
   c) Large demand
   d) Power Availability

II Match the following

1.	Bauxite	-	Cement
2.	Gypsum	-	Aluminium
3.	Anthracite	-	Electrical goods
4.	Iron ore	-	Coal
5.	Mica	-	Magnetite

III Answer the following Questions briefly

1. Define the resource and state its types.
2. What are minerals and state its type?
3. State the uses of Manganese.
4. What is natural gas?
5. Name the different types of coal with their carbon content.
6. Mention the major areas of jute production in India.
7. Name the important oil producing regions of India.

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IV Distinguish between

1. Renewable and non-renewable resources.
2. Metallic and non-metallic minerals.
3. Agro based industry and mineral based industry.
4. Jute industry and sugar industry.

V Answer the following in a paragraph

1. Write about the distribution of cotton textile industries in India.
2. Describe the major challenges of Indian industries.

VI On the outline map of India mark the following

1. Iron ore production centres.
2. Centres of Petroleum and Natural Gas production.
3. Coal mining centres.
4. Areas of cultivation of cotton.
5. Iron and Steel industries.

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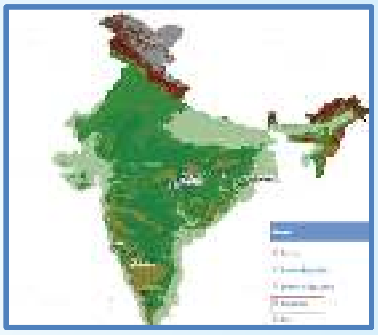
ICT CORNER

India - Resources and Industries

Visit **school Bhuvan?**
School Bhuvan visualizes natural resources, environment and their sustainable development in India.



Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Scroll Down and click on 'Explore'
- Click on **'Thematic Serious 2'** in top menuandSelect **'Mineral'**

Website URL:

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Unit - 5

India - Population, Transport, Communication & Trade

Learning Objectives

- To understand the growth and distribution of population in India
- To know about the Human Development in India.
- To learn the transport systems of India.
- To understand the communication system of India.
- To assess the nature of trade in India.

RHY4V

Introduction

The study on human population is one of the most important aspects in geography of any region. The human population has many components but the most fundamental are its number, composition, distribution and density. Therefore, it is essential to study these components. The study on these aspects also would reveal the workforce of the country.

5.1 Population

The total number of people residing in a country at a specified period of time is called the **'Population'** of that country. India is the second most populous country in the world next only to china. India covers only 2.4 percent of the land area of the world, but is the home of about 17.5 percent of the world's population. It shows that the proportion of population of India is far higher than the proportion of its area. Thus, a little more than one out of every six persons in the world is from India.

Census

Population census is the total process of collecting, compiling, analysing or otherwise disseminating demographic, economic and social data pertaining, at a specific time, of all persons in a country or a well-defined part of a country. It happens in an interval of ten years. The data collected through the census are used for administration, planning, policy making as well as management and evaluation of various programmes by the government.

DO YOU KNOW?

In India the first census was carried out in the year 1872. But the first complete and synchronous census was conducted in 1881. And the 2011 census represents the fifteenth census of India.

Distribution and Density of Population

The term **'Population Distribution'** refers to the way the people are spaced over the earth's surface. The distribution of population in India is quite uneven because of the vast variation

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in the availability of resources. Population is mostly concentrated in the regions of industrial centres and the good agricultural lands. On the other hand, the areas such as high mountains, arid lands, thickly forested areas and some remote corners are very thinly populated and some areas are even uninhabited. Terrain, climate, soil, water bodies, mineral resources, industries, transport and urbanization are the major factors which affect the distribution of population in our country.

Uttar Pradesh is the most populous state in the country with a population of 199.5 million followed by Maharashtra (112.3 million), Bihar (103.8 million) West Bengal (91.3 million) and the combined Andhra Pradesh and Telangana (84.6 million). These five states account for about half of the country's population. Sikkim is the least populous state of India(0.61 million). Delhi with 16.75 million population tops among the Union territories.

The uneven distribution of population in the country is the result of several factors such as physical, socio-economic and historical ones. The physical factors include relief, climate, water, natural vegetation, minerals and energy resources. Socio-economic factors consists of the religion, culture, political issues, economy, human settlements, transport network, industrialization, urbanization, employment opportunity etc.

Density of population

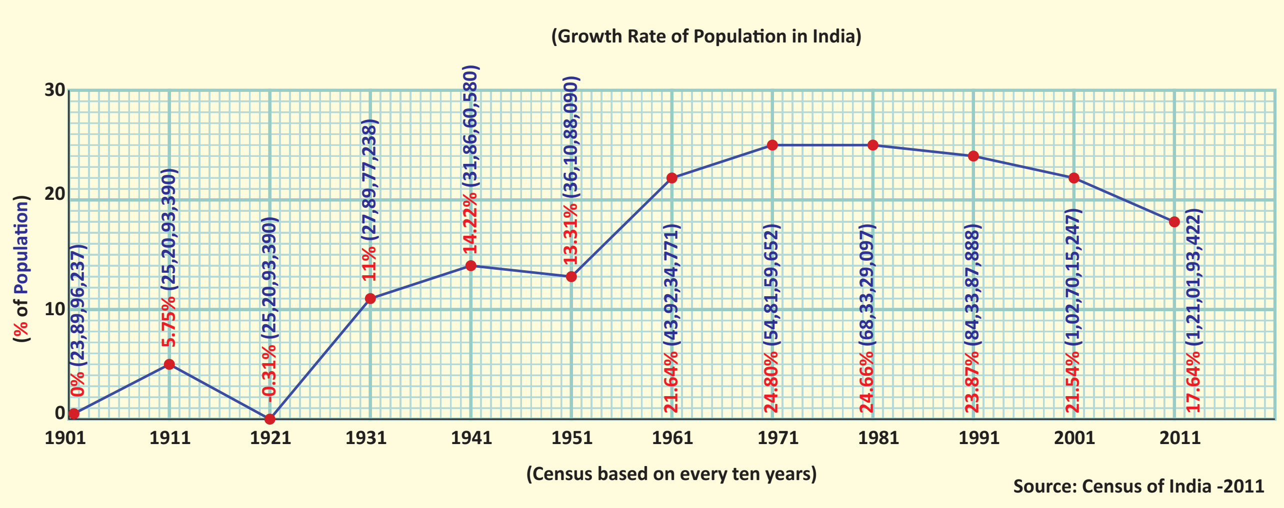
It is expressed as number of persons per sq km. According to 2011, the average density of population of India is 382 persons per sq.km. India is one of the most thickly populated ten countries of the world. The most densely populated state of India is Bihar and the state with least population density is Arunachal Pradesh. Among the union territories, Delhi is the densely populated one with 11,297 per sq.km, while Andaman and Nicobar Islands have the lowest density of population.

Population Growth and Change

Population change refers to an increase or decrease of population of an area from one period to another period. Population growth is influenced by the birth rate, death rate and migration. These three make the changes in population.

Birth rate refers to the number of live births per thousand people in a year and the Death rate refers to the number of deaths per thousand people in a year. The rapid decline in death rate is the major cause of the rapid growth of population in India.

The following table shows the decadal growth rate of population from 1901 to 2011.



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5.2 Migration

It is the movement of people across regions and territories. It can be internal (within a country) or international (between the countries). Internal migration does not change the size of population of a country but it influences the distribution of population in a nation. It plays an important role in changing the composition and distribution of population. In India, the mass migration is from rural to urban. Unemployment and under employment in the rural areas are the push factors and the employment opportunity and higher wages in the urban areas caused by the industrial development are the pull factors of migration in the country.

Population composition

Population composition refers to the characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, caste, religion, language, education, occupation etc. The study of composition of population helps us to understand the social, economic and demographic structure of population.

Age composition

The age composition of population refers to the number of people in different age groups in a country. Population of a nation is generally grouped in to three broad categories. In India, the children who has less than 15 years of age constitute 29.5% and the people above 60 years constitute 8.0%. So, the dependent population in India is 37.5%and the independent population (16-59 yrs) is 62.5%. It shows that our country has enormous manpower.

Sex Ratio

Sex ratio is defined as the number of females per 1000 male population.

> The sex ratio in our country is always unfavourable to females. Give reasons.

According to 2011 census, the sex ratio of the country is 940 females per 1000 males. This suggests that the size of female population is lower than males. It is 1084 in Kerala and 1038 in Puducherry. The lowest sex ratio is recorded in the union territory of Daman and Diu(618).

Literacy Rate

The people who are able to read and write are known as **literates**. It is an important indicator of quality of people. The percentage of literate people to the total population is termed as **literacy rate**. There has been a steady improvement in the literacy levels in India. India's literacy rate as per 2011 census is 74.04%. From this, the literacy rate of male is 82.14% and the female is 65.46%. It shows that still there is a vast gap (16.68%) between the male and female literacy rates. Kerala ranks first in the country with a literacy rate of 93.91% followed by union territory Lakshadweep with 92.28%. The lowest literacy rate is found in Bihar (63.82 %).

Occupational structure

The economically active part of a country's population is enumerated during the census operations and stated as workers. Workers are placed under three fold categories in census record. They are main workers, marginal workers and non-workers. According to the Census of India, all those who had worked for the major part of the preceding year (at least 6 months or 183 days) are recorded as main workers. Those who worked for less than six months are recorded as marginal workers and the people who have not worked at all comes under non workers.

Population Dynamics

Human population dynamics is a field that tracks factors related to changes in the size of population and its characteristics. Predicting population changes is an important aspect of population studies.

Problems of over Population

In India, growing pressure of Population on resource base, created many socio-economic, cultural, political, ecological and environmental problems. The Population problems vary in space and time and differ from region to region. Some of the major

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issues created by the overpopulation in our country are overcrowding, unemployment and under employment, low standard of living, malnutrition, mismanagement of natural and agricultural resources, unhealthy environment etc.

5.3 Urbanization

The process of society's transformation from rural to urban is known as urbanization.

Urbanization in India

The level of urbanization is measured in terms of percentage of urban population.

Goa is the most urbanized state. Himachal Pradesh is the least urbanized state. Among the Union territories, Delhi is the most urbanized region followed by Chandigarh. Among the major states, Tamil Nadu continues to be the second most urbanized state with 48.4% percent of urban population followed by Kerala and Maharashtra.

Impact of Urbanization

Urbanization and population concentration go hand – in – hand and are closely related to each other. Rural to urban migration leads to population explosion in urban areas. Metropolitan cities like Mumbai, Kolkata and Delhi have more population than that can accommodate.

The following are the **major problems of urbanization** in India.

- It creates urban sprawl.
- It makes overcrowding in urban centres.
- It leads to shortage of houses in urban areas.
- It leads to the formation of slums.
- It increases traffic congestion in cities.
- It creates water scarcity in cities.
- It creates drainage problem.
- It poses the problem of solid waste management.
- It increases the rate of crime.

5.4 Transportation

Transport is a system in which passengers and goods are carried from one place to another. Transport system is considered as the **lifeline of a country**. Earlier man travelled on foot or used animals for transport. With the discovery of wheel, transport was made easier and gradually different means of transport were developed. There are three major means of transport in the world.

Means of Transport

- Land → Road ways, Railways, Pipelines
- Water → Inland waterways, Ocean routes
- Air → Domestic airways, International Airways

Roadways

Roads play an important role in carrying goods and passengers for short, medium and long distances. It is highly suitable for short distance services. It is comparatively easy and cheap to construct and maintain roads. Road transport system can establish easy contact between farms, fields, factories and markets and can provide door to door transport services. Roads are the most universal mode of transport. Indian roads are cost efficient. It is used by all sections of people in the society.

In India the densest road network is found in the northern plains where it is relatively

DO YOU KNOW?

Shershah suri built the shahi (Royal) road to strengthen and consolidate his empire from the Indus valley to the Sonar valley in Bengal. This road from Kolkata to Peshawar was renamed as **Grand Trunk**(GT) road during the British period. At present, it extends from Amritsar to Kolkata.

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easy to construct roads. In mountainous area, it is quite difficult to construct roads. Road density is the highest in Kerala and lowest in Jammu &Kashmir.

For the purpose of construction and maintenance, roads are classified into National Highways (NH), State Highways (SH), District Roads, Rural Roads (Village roads), Border Roads and International Highways.

1. Classification of Roads in India

a) National Highways (NH)

National Highways form the most important system of road transportation in India. These highways are running through length and breadth of the country connecting capitals of states, major Ports, rail junctions, industrial and tourist centres. Ministry of Road Transport and Highways of India, is responsible for the development and maintenance of National Highways in India. The longest National highway is NH-44 which runs from Srinagar in Jammu Kashmir to Kanniyakumari in Tamil Nadu covering a distance of 4076 km. The shortest national highway is NH-47A, which runs from Ernakulum to Kochi port (Willington Island) covering a distance of 6 km.

Do you know?

National Highways Authority of India (NHAI) was established in 1995. It is an autonomous body under the Ministry of Surface Transport.

b) State Highways

The state highways are usually roads that link important cities, towns and district headquarters within the state and connect them with national highways or highways of neighbouring states. These roads are administered and financed by state governments.

c) District Roads

District Roads provide connectivity between the district and taluk headquarters with the state highways and national highways. District Roads are constructed and maintained by the Public Works Department of the states.

d) Rural Roads (Village Roads)

These roads are vital for providing links in the rural areas. It links the different villages with their neighbouring towns. They are maintained by Village Panchayats.

e) Border Roads

These are the roads of strategic importance in border areas. They are constructed and maintained by Border Roads Organization. It was established in 1960 for the development of the roads of strategic importance in the northern and northeastern border areas. Border Roads Organization has constructed world's highest road joining Chandigarh and Leh in Ladakh. This road runs at an average altitude of 4,270 meters.

f) Golden Quadrilateral

Golden Quadrilateral 5,846 km long road of 4/6 lanes connects, India's four metropolitan cities: Delhi-Kolkata-Chennai-Mumbai-Delhi. This project was launched in 1999.

Hots

What are the highlights and benefits of the Golden Quadrilateral Highways?

g) North–South and East-West Corridors

North-South corridor aims at connecting Srinagar in Jammu and Kashmir with Kaniyakumari in Tamil Nadu (including Kochi-Salem Spur) with 4,076km long road.

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INDIA - ROADWAYS

The East-West corridor has been planned to connect Silchar in Assam with the port town of Porbandar in Gujarat with 3,640km of road length. The two corridors intersect at Jhansi.

h) Expressways

These are multi-lane good quality highways for high speed traffic. Some of the important expressways are; (i)Mumbai-Pune Road, (ii) Kolkata-Dumdum Airport road (iii) Durgapur-Kolkata road and (iv) Yamuna expressway between Delhi and Agra.

Mumbai-Pune Road

i) International Highways

These are the roads that link India with neighbouring countries for promoting harmonious relationship with them. These highways have been constructed with an aid from world bank under an agreement with the Economic and Social Commission for Asia-Pacific (ESCAP). These roads connect important highways of India with those of the neighbouring countries such as Pakistan, Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh and Myanmar.

Railways

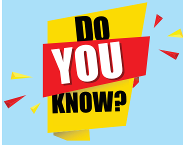
Indian railway system is the main artery of the country's inland transport. Railways cater to the needs of large scale movement of traffic, both for freight and passenger, thereby contributing to economic growth. Railways are considered as the backbone of the surface transport system of India. It promotes national integration by bringing people together. It also promotes trade, tourism, education etc. Railways help in the commercialization of the agriculture sector by facilitating the bulky movement of perishable goods. Its role in transporting raw materials to industries and finished goods to markets is invaluable. Indian railways network is the largest in Asia and second largest in the world.

For operations and management, the Indian Railways is organized into 17 zones.

S. No.	Zone	Headquarters
1.	Northern Railway	New Delhi
2.	North-Western Railway	Jaipur
3.	North-Central Railway	Allahabad
4.	North-Eastern Railway	Gorakhpur
5.	North-East Frontier Railway	Guwahati
6.	Eastern Railway	Kolkata
7.	East coast Railway	Bhubaneswar
8.	East-Central Railway	Hazipur
9.	West-Central Railway	Jabalpur
10.	Central Railway	Mumbai (VT)
11.	Western Railway	Mumbai (Churchgate)
12.	Southern Railway	Chennai
13.	South-Central Railway	Secunderabad
14.	South Eastern Railway	Kolkata
15.	South-Western Railway	Hubball
16.	South East Central Railway	Bilaspur
17.	Konkan Railway	Navi Mumbai

On the basis of width of the track, the Indian railways fall under four categories.

1. Broad gauge (1.676 meter width)
2. Meter gauge (1 meter width)
3. Narrow gauge (0.762 meter width)
4. Light gauge (0.610 meter width)



- The first sub-urban railway was started in 1925 in Mumbai.
- Gatiman Express is the fastest operational train in India. This train connects New Delhi and Agra and touches 160 km/h.

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a) Metro Railways in India

There are 8 cities with metro rail connectivity in India. They are Kolkata (West Bengal), Chennai (Tamil Nadu), Delhi, Bengaluru (Karnataka), Gurgaon (Haryana), Mumbai (Maharashtra), Jaipur (Rajasthan) and Kochi (Kerala). The metro in Kolkata is the first one in India. It is also called as Mass Rapid Transit System (MRTS). As of November 2022, India has 810 km of operational metro lines and 381 stations.

Pipeline transport

Pipelines provided a very convenient mode of transport to connect oil and natural gas fields, refineries and to the markets. In the past, these were used to transport water to cities and industries. Now solids can also be transported through a pipeline when converted into slurry. The initial cost of laying pipeline is high but subsequent running cost is minimum. It can be laid through difficult terrain as well as under water. It ensures steady supply of goods and reduces the transshipment losses and delays.

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Oil field in upper Assam to Kanpur, from Salaya in Gujarat to Jalandhar in Punjab and gas pipeline from the Hazira in Gujarat ot Jagadispur in Uttar Pradesh.

Waterways

A waterway is an important mode of transport for both passenger and cargo traffic in India. It is the oldest and also the cheapest means of transport and most suitable for carrying heavy and bulky materials from one country to another. It is a fuel-efficient and eco-friendly mode of transport. The water transport is of two types-

1. Inland Waterways
2. Ocean water ways(sea routes).

a) Inland Waterways

India has an extensive network of inland waterways in the form of rivers, canals, lakes and backwaters. It depends upon the depth and width of the waterways and the continuity of the water flow. For the development, maintenance and regulation of national waterways in the country, the Inland water ways Authority was setup in 1986.

The major national waterways are:

National Waterway 1

It extends between Haldia and Allahabad, measures 1620 km and includes the stretches of the Ganga-Bhagirathi-Hooghly river system.

National Waterway 2

This waterway includes the stretch of the Brahmaputra river between Dhubri and Sadiya a distance of 891 km.

National Waterway 3

This waterway extends between Kollam and Kottapuram in the state of Kerala. It is the first national waterway in the country with 24 hour navigation facilities along its entire stretch of 205 km.

b) Oceanic Routes

Oceanic routes play an important role in the transport sector of India's economy. About 95% of India's foreign trade by volume and 70 percent by value moves through ocean routes.

Coastal shipping plays an important role in transport of bulk goods in India. Shipping is not only the most economical mode of transport, it is also an environment friendly mode. The sea and oceanic routes are mainly used for international trade and are connected through ports. There are 13 major and 200 minor or intermediate ports in India. The major ports are administered by the Central Government and minor ports are managed and administered by various state governments. The major ports on the east coast are Kolkata (including Haldia Dock), Paradip, Visakhapatnam, Chennai, Ennore and Tuticorin. The major ports on the west coast are Kandla, Mumbai, Nhava Seva (Jawaharlal Nehru Port), New Mangalore, Marmagao and Kochi.

India has four major shipyards.

1. Hindustan shipyard in Vishakhapatnam
2. Garden Reach workshop in Kolkata,
3. Mazagaon Dock in Mumbai
4. Kochi Shipyard in Kochi

India is the second largest ship owning country in Asia and ranks 16th in the World.

Air Transport

Airways are the quickest, costliest, most modern and comfortable means of transport, Air transport facilitates connectivity on a national, regional and international scale. It has made accessibility easier by connecting difficult terrains like high mountains and sandy deserts. It carries passengers, freight and mail. Air transport plays a key role in times of emergency as well as in the event of natural and man-made calamities like floods, epidemics and wars.

Air transport in India made a beginning on 18th February, 1918 when Henry Piquet carried a mail from Allahabad to Naini. In 1953, eight different airlines which were in operation in the country were nationalised.

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Domestic Airways fly within the boundaries of a country and **International Airways** connect major cities of the world. The Indian Air lines and Air India are the two airline services run by the government of India. **Indian Air lines** provides the domestic air services and **Air India** provides international air services. Presently, there are 19 designated international airports available in the country.

Hots

Why is air travel preferred in the north eastern states?

Pavan-Hans Helicopter Ltd

Pavan-Hans Helicopter Ltd has been providing Helicopter support services to the petroleum sector, including ONGC and oil India Ltd. It is a public sector company based in New Delhi. Its operations are based at the Juhu Aerodrome in Vile Parle (West) Mumbai. Pavan-Hans is a Mini Ratna–I category public sector undertaking. It often provides services to various state governments particularly north east India and Inter Island, Ferry services in Andaman & Nicobar Islands, services to Lakshadweep Island etc.,

Airports Authority of India (AAI)

Airports Authority of India (AAI) was constituted in 1995. It provides security to Indian Airports. AAI under the ministry of Civil Aviation is responsible for creating, upgrading, maintaining and managing civil aviation infrastructure in India.

5.5 Communication

Communication is a process that involves exchange of information, thoughts and ideas. Technology does wonders in communication fields. Communication is categorized in to personal and mass communications.

Personal Communication

The exchange of information between the individuals is called personal communication. It includes postal services, telephone, mobile phone, short message services, fax, internet, e-mail etc. Personal Communication system enables the user to establish direct contact.

The Indian postal network is the largest in the world with 1,55,000 post offices. Of these more than 1,39,000 post offices are located in rural areas. The postal service was opened to the public in the country in 1837. The first Indian postal stamp was issued in 1852 in Karachi. Collecting and delivering mail is the primary function of the department of posts. It introduced the Quick Mail Service in 1975. The Quick Mail Service functions on the basis of the system of PIN (Postal Index Number) code which was introduced in 1972. The premium products include the Money order, e-money order, Speed Post, Express Parcel Post, Business Post, Media Post, Satellite Post, Retail Post, Greeting Post, Data Post, Speed Net and Speed Passport Services.

India has one of the largest telecommunication networks in Asia. Apart from the urban areas more than two-thirds of the villages in India have already been covered with **Subscriber Trunk Dialing (STD)** telephone facility, while International communication can be made through **ISD (International Subscriber Dialing).** There is an uniform rate of STD facilities all over India. Telephone is a form of oral communication. It is considered very essential for the growth of commerce. It is the most preferred form as it provides instant communication. Mobile phone, fax and internet are the other personal communication used in the country.

Mass Communication Systems

Mass Communication enables millions of people to get the information at the same time. It is a great way to provide education as well as entertainment. It helps in creating awareness among the people regarding various national policies and programmes. The Mass Communication Systems can provide the information to people in two methods. They are Print Media and Electronic Media.

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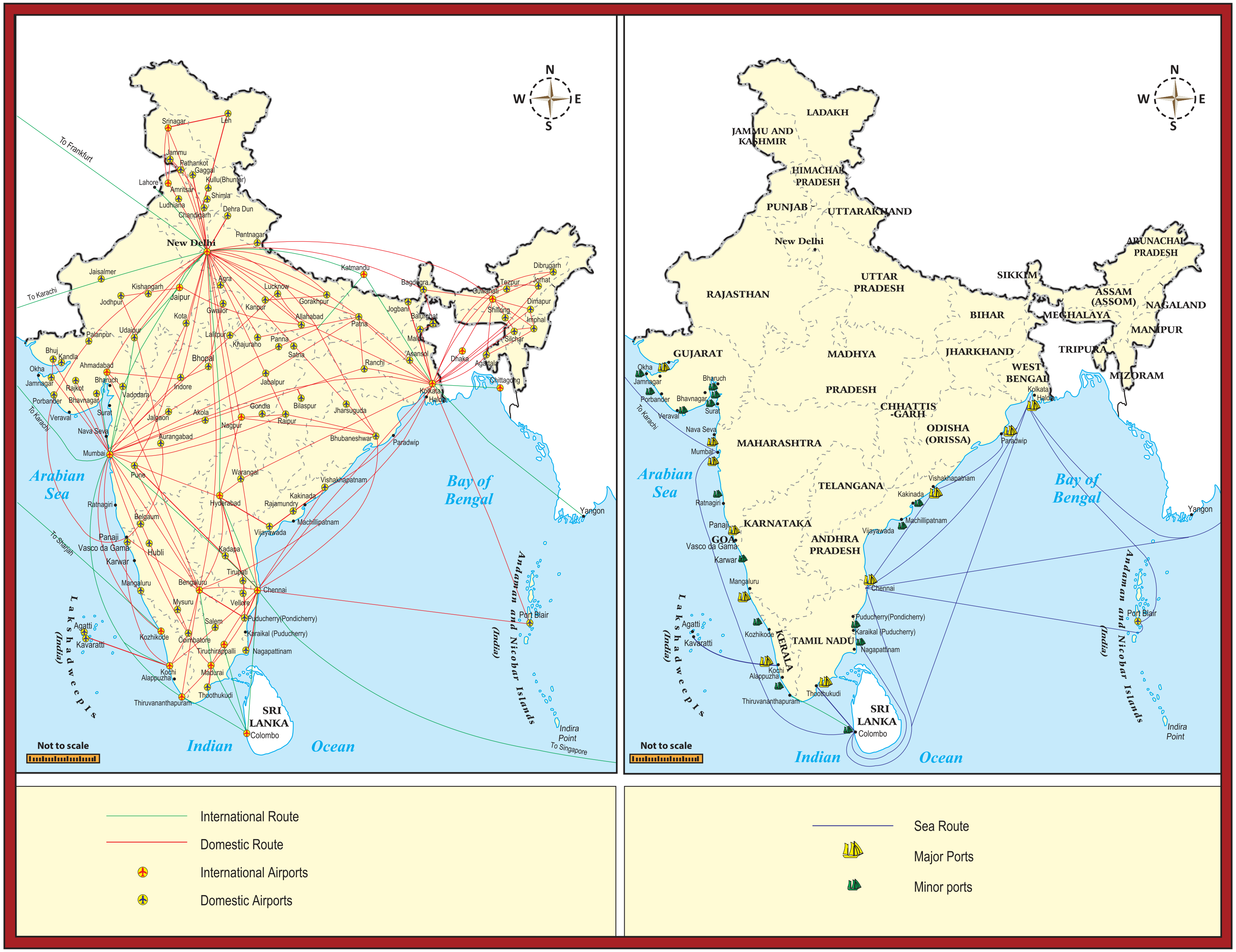
INDIA - AIR AND SEA ROUTES



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Electronic Media: Radio broadcasting in India was started in 1923 by the Radio club of Bombay. Since then it gained immense popularity and changed the social and cultural life of people. It was named as All India Radio (AIR) in 1936 and again it was renamed as Akashwani in 1957. It broadcasts a variety of programs related to information, education and entertainment. Special news bulletins are also broadcasted on special occasions like session of parliament and state legislatures.

Television broadcasting has emerged as the most effective audio-visual medium for disseminating information and educating the masses. Television network in India is known as Doordarshan (DD) which started Common National Program (CNP) services and it is extended to the backward and remote rural areas.

Internet (contraction of **interconnected network**) is the global system of interconnected computer networks that use the Internet protocol suite to link devices worldwide. **Social media** are interactive computer-mediated technologies that facilitate the creation and sharing of information, ideas, career interests and other forms of expression via virtual communities and networks.

Print Media: Newspapers are the most common but powerful means of communication come under print media. India has many newspapers which carry information on local, national and international events to the people.

Satellite Communication

The use of Satellite in getting a continuous and synoptic view of larger area has made this communication system very vital for the country. Satellite images are used for weather forecasting, monitoring of natural calamities, surveillance of border areas etc. The communication through satellites emerged as a new era in communication in our country after the establishment of **Indian Space Research Organization (ISRO)** in 1969.

Satellite system in India can be grouped into two

1. The Indian National Satellite System (INSAT)
2. The Indian Remote Sensing Satellite System (IRS).

The INSAT, established in 1983, is a multipurpose system for telecommunication, meteorological observation and for various other programs. The INSAT series are used for relaying signals to television, telephone, radio, mobile phone. It is also useful in weather detection, internet and military applications.

The INSAT series, GSAT series, KALPANA-1, HAMSAT, EDUSAT are the major communication satellite used for communication purpose. GSAT–7A is the recent launch (December 19, 2018) for communication programs. INSAT-1B launched on 30th August 1983 is the first communication satellite in INSAT series.

5.6 Trade

Trade is an important phenomenon that decides the economic growth of a country. Trade is an act (or) process of buying, selling or exchanging of goods and services. The primitive method of trade was known as the Barter system where goods were exchanged for goods. Later on, money was introduced as a medium of exchange in buying and selling of goods. The difference in value between the imports and exports is called balance of trade. The situation in which the value of exports exceeds the value of imports is termed as favourable balance of trade and the reverse position is termed as unfavourable balance of trade.

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Types of Trade

Trade in general, is of two types. They are

1. Internal trade
2. International trade

The trade carried on within the domestic territory of a country is termed as **Internal trade.** It is also called as **Domestic trade** or **Local trade.** Land transport (roadways and railways) plays a major role in this trade. Local currency is used in internal trade. It helps to promote a balanced regional growth in the country.

Trade carried on between two or more countries is called **International trade.** It is also called as external trade or foreign trade. Export and Import are two components of International trade. Export means goods and services sold for foreign currency. Import means goods and services bought from overseas producers. Waterways and Airways play a vital role in this type of trade. Foreign currency is involved in international trade. The trade between any two countries is called **Bilateral trade.** The trade between more than two countries is called **Mutilateral Trade.**

Exports

The major exports of India are tea, marine products, ores and minerals, leather products, gems and jewels, sports goods, chemicals and related products, plastics and rubber articles, articles of stones, plaster, cement, asbestos, mica, glass ware, paper and related products, base metals, optical, medical and surgical instruments, electronic items, machinery, office equipments, textiles and allied products.

Imports

The major imports are petroleum products, pearls, precious stones and semi-precious stones, gold and telecom instruments.

Activity

Find out the countries which have trade realtionship with India

SUMMARY

- The total number of people residing in a country at a specified period of time is called the size of population of that country.
- The growth of population is determined by the birth rate, death rate and migration of people.
- The process of society's transformation from rural to urban is known as urbanization.
- Communication is classified into the personal and mass communications.
- Trade is an exchange of goods and services. Internal and International trades are its types. Import and exports are the components of an International Trade.

EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. The scientific study of different aspects of population is called

   a) Cartography b) Demography

   c) Anthropology d) Epigraphy

2. ________ transport provides door to door services.

   a) Railways b) Roadways

   c) Airways d) Waterways.

3. The length of Golden Quadrilateral superhighways in India is

   a) 5846 km b) 5942 km

   c) 5630 km d) 5800 km

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4. The National Remote sensing Centre(NRSC) is located at ________.
   a) Bengaluru b) Chennai
   c) Delhi d) Hyderabad

5. The transport useful in the inaccessible areas is
   a) Roadways b) Railways
   c) Airways d) Waterways

6. Which of the following is associated with helicopter service?
   a) Air India b) Indian Airlines
   c) Vayudoot d) Pavan Hans

7. The major import item of India is
   a) Cement b) Jewells
   c) Tea d) Petroleum

II Match the following

1	Border Road Organisation	-	Satellite communication
2	INSAT	-	Impact of Urbanization
3	Mazagaon Dock	-	1955
4	Urban sprawl	-	Mumbai
5	NHAI	-	1960
		-	Hyderabad

III Answer the following Questions briefly

1. What is migration? State its types.
2. Write any four advantages of railways.
3. Write a note on Pipeline network transport in India
4. State the major Inland waterways of India
5. What is communication? What are its types?
6. Define “International trade”.
7. State the merits of Roadways.

IV Distinguish between

1. Personal communication and mass communication.
2. Print Media and Electronic Media.
3. Roadways and Railways.
4. Waterways and Airways.
5. Internal trade and International trade.

V Answer the following in a paragraph

1. What is urbanization? Explain its problem.
2. Explain the importances of satellite communication in India.
3. Classify and explain the roadways in India.

VI On the outline map of India mark the following

1. National Highway NH-44
2. Major seaports in India.
3. Major International Airports in India.
4. Densely populated state of India.
5. State of highest literacy in India
6. Railways zones of India.

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Unit - 6

Physical Geography of Tamil Nadu

Learning Objectives

- To know the history of formation of the state
- To study the major physiographic divisions of the state
- To understand the nature of climate, soils and natural vegetation
- To familiarise the students with the geographical conditions of their living places
- To know the major natural disasters and their occurrences in Tamil Nadu

Introduction

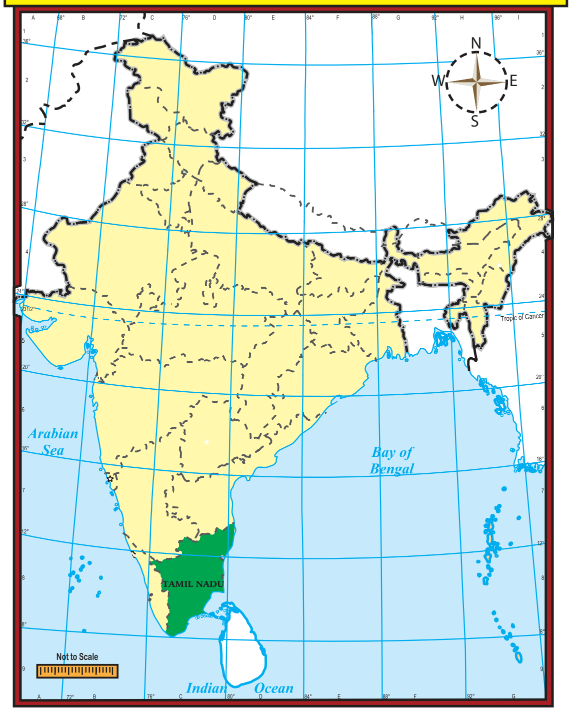
The study of one's own region is the first step to become a global citizen. The purpose of studying our local territory is to understand life in our environment. In the last five lessons, you have learnt about various geographical characterstics of our country. In this lesson and those that follow, we shall learn about the geography of Tamil Nadu. You will get to know about the etymology, history of formation, location, size, physical divisions, rivers, climate, soil and natural vegetation of Tamil Nadu in this chapter.

Its exquisite physiography and climate makes our state unique in India. It has long and sunny beaches, waterfalls, hills, forests and varied flora and fauna.

DO YOU KNOW?

As per, the States Reorganisation Act, 1956, state boundaries were reorganised on some linguistic basis.

LOCATION OF TAMIL NADU IN INDIA



- Name the first state of India created on linguistic basis.
- Why was the capital of Tamil Nadu renamed?

6.1 Location and Size

Tamil Nadu is one of the 28 states of India, located in the southern most part of the country. It extends from 8°4'N to 13°35'N latitudes and from 76°18'E to 80°20'E longitudes. Its extremities are

- in eastern - Point Calimere
- in western - hills of Anaimalai
- in northern - Pulicat lake
- in southern - Cape Comorin

It covers an area of 1,30,058 sq.km and is the 11th largest state in India. It covers 4% of the area of our country.

Boundaries and Neighbours

Tamil Nadu is bounded by the Bay of Bengal in the east, Kerala in the west, Andhra Pradesh in the north, Karnataka in the northwest and Indian Ocean in the south. Gulf of Mannar and Palk Strait separate Tamil Nadu from the Island of Sri Lanka, which lies to the southeast of India. The state has 906.9 km long coastline, the third-longest in India after Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh.

Administrative Divisions

Already we have learnt that the state of Tamil Nadu had only 13 districts at the time of its formation. After that, the state was reorganised several times for the administrative convenience.

Activity

- Find out the coastal districts of Tamil Nadu with the help of a map.
- Mark the districts of Tamil Nadu which share their boundary with the states of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Kerala separately.
- Mention the districts of Tamil Nadu.

Find out and write:

Divisions	Numbers
Districts	
Revenue Divisions	
Taluks	
Firkas	
Revenue Villages	
Municipal Corporations	
Municipalities	
Panchayat Unions (Blocks)	
Town Panchayats	
Village Panchayats	
Lok Sabha Constituencies	
Assembly Constituencies	

Physiographic Divisions

Let's see the major physical features of Tamil Nadu and their characteristics.

Tamil Nadu is located on the Peninsular Plateau, known as Deccan Plateau. It is also a part of the ancient Gondwana land that broke away 135 million years ago during Cretaceous Period. Tamil Nadu is divided into the physical divisions of Western Ghats, Eastern Ghats, Plateaus, Coastal and Inland plains.

6.2 Western Ghats

Western Ghats extend from the Niligris in the north to Marunthuvazh Malai at Swamithope in Kanyakumari district in the south. Height of the Western Ghats ranges from 2,000 to 3,000 metres. It covers an area of about 2,500 sq.km. Though the Western Ghats is a continuous range, it has some passes. The passes are Palghat, Shencottah, Aralvaimozhi, and Achankoil. The Niligris, Anaimalai, Palani hills, Cardamom hills, Varusanadu, Andipatti and Pothigai hills are the major hills of Western Ghats .

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TAMIL NADU - POLITICAL

DO YOU KNOW?

All districts of Tamil Nadu except the Chennai, The Nilgiris and Kanyakumari were bifurcated at different points of time.

Between which latitude and longitude, is your school located?

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Nilgiri Hills

The Nilgiri hills is located in the Northwestern part of Tamil Nadu. It consists of 24 peaks with more than 2,000 metres height. Doddabetta is the highest peak (2,637 metres) of this hills followed by Mukkuruthi (2,554 metres). Ooty and Coonoor are the major hill stations located on this hills. It has more than 2,700 species of flowering plants and the state animal Nilgiri Tahr is found in this hill.

Doddabetta

Anaimalai

Anaimalai is located in the border of Tamil Nadu and Kerala. It is located to the south of Palghat Gap. Anaimalai Tiger Reserve, Aliyar Reserved Forest, Valparai hill station, Kadamparai hydroelectric Power Plant are located on this hills. Aliyar and Tirumurthy dams are located at the foothills of this range.

Palani Hills

Palani hills are the eastward extension of the Western Ghats. These hills are located in Dindigul district. Vandaravu (2,533 metres) is the highest peak in the Palani hills. Vembadi Shola (2,505 metres) is its second highest peak. The hill station of Kodaikanal (2,150 metres) lies in the south central portion of the range.

Palani Hills

Peaks in Western Ghats	Height(m)
doddabetta	2,637
Mukkuruthi	2,554
Perumalmalai	2,234
Vandaravu	2,533
Kottaimtalai	2,019
Pagasura	1,918

Cardamom Hills

These hills are also known as Yela Mala hills located in the southwestern part of Tamil Nadu. It acquires its name from the cardamom spice, which is commonly grown here. Pepper and coffee are the other crops cultivated over the hills. They meet the Anaimalai hills in the northwest, the Palani hills in the northeast and Varusanadu and Andipatti hills in the southeast.

Varusanadu and Andipatti Hills

Another eastward extension of Western Ghats is Varusanadu and Andipatti hills. Megamalai (the highway mountain), Kalugumalai, Kurangani hill station, and Suruli and Kumbakarai waterfalls are found on these hills. Srivilliputhur Grizzled Squirrel Wild life Sanctuary is located in the southern slope of these hills in Virudhunagar district. Vaigai river and its tributaries originate in this region.

Pothigai Hills

Its major part lies in Tenkasi district with its southern slope in the Kanyakumari district. Pothigai hills are called with different names such as the Shiva Jothi Parvath, Agasthiyar hills and Southern Kailash. These hills feature richest biodiversity in the Western Ghats. This area is known for its rich evergreen forest, waterfalls and ancient temples. Kalakkad Mundanthurai Tiger Reserve is located in this region.

Mahendragiri Hills

This continous range is situated along the border of Kanyakumari and Tirunelveli districts and is a part of the southern range of the Western Ghats. Its average height is 1,645 metres.

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6.3 The Eastern Ghats

Unlike Western Ghats, Eastern Ghats is a discontinuous and irregular one. It is dissected at many places by the rivers, which drain into the Bay of Bengal. Its height ranges from 1,100 to 1,600 metres. These hills separate the plains from plateaus. Javadhu, Servarayan, the Kalrayan, Kollimalai and Pachaimalai are the major hills of the Eastern Ghats of Tamil Nadu and are located in northern districts of the state.

Javadhu Hills

Javadhu hills are an extension of the Eastern Ghats spread across parts of Vellore and Tiruvannamalai districts and separates these two districts. Many peaks with the height of 1,100–1,150 metres are located in this range. Melpattu is its highest peak. Many parts of this range are covered with bluish grey granites. It is noted for its fruit bearing trees, medicinal herbs and sandalwoods. Due to illegal logging, sandalwood trees are disappeared now.

Kalvarayan Hills

The name 'Kalvarayan' comes from the word 'Karalar', the ancient name of the present tribes. It is another major range of hills in the Eastern Ghats of Tamil Nadu. This range, along with the Pachaimalai, Aralvaimalai, Javadhu and Servarayan hills, separates the river basins of Cauvery and Palar. The height of this hill ranges from 600 to 1,220 metres.

Servarayan Hills

It is a mountain range located near the Salem city with the height ranging from 1,200 to 1,620 metres. The name of the range comes

Peaks in Eastern Ghats	Height(m)
Solaikaradu	1,620
Pazhamalai	1,500
Urgamalai	1,486
Kuttirayan	1,395
Muganur	1,279
Valsamalai	1,034

Why are mountain heights measured from mean sea level and not from ground level?

Major hills in Tamil Nadu

Districts	Hills
Coimbatore	Maruthamalai, Velliangiri and Anaimalai
Dharmapuri	Theertha malai, Chitteri and Vathalmalai
Dindigul	Palanimalai
Erode	Chenni hills and Sivan hills
Tirupattur	Yelagiri hills
Tenkasi	Pothigai hills
Vellore	Javadhu and Rathinamalai hills
Namakkal	Kolli hills
Salem	Servarayan, Kanjamalai and Chalk hills
Kallakurichi	Kalvarayan hills
Villupuram	Gingee hills
Perambalur	Pachaimalai
Kanyakumari	Marunthuvazhmalai
Tirunelveli	Mahendragiri
The Nilgiris	Nilgiri hills

from a local deity, Servarayan. The highest peak in the southern part of the Eastern Ghats is located in this range. The peak is Solaikaradu and its height is 1,620 metres. The hill station Yercaud, which is known as poor man's Ooty, is located on this range.

Kolli Hills

It is a small mountain range located in Namakkal district. It covers an area of about 2,800 sq.km. It rises up to 1300 metres. This is a mountain range that runs almost parallel to the east coast of South India. Arpaleeswarar temple located on this range is an important pilgrim centre. It has the largest cover of evergreen or shola forest when compared to other parts of the Eastern Ghats. Several coffee plantations, fruits, flowers and silver-oak estates are found in this region.

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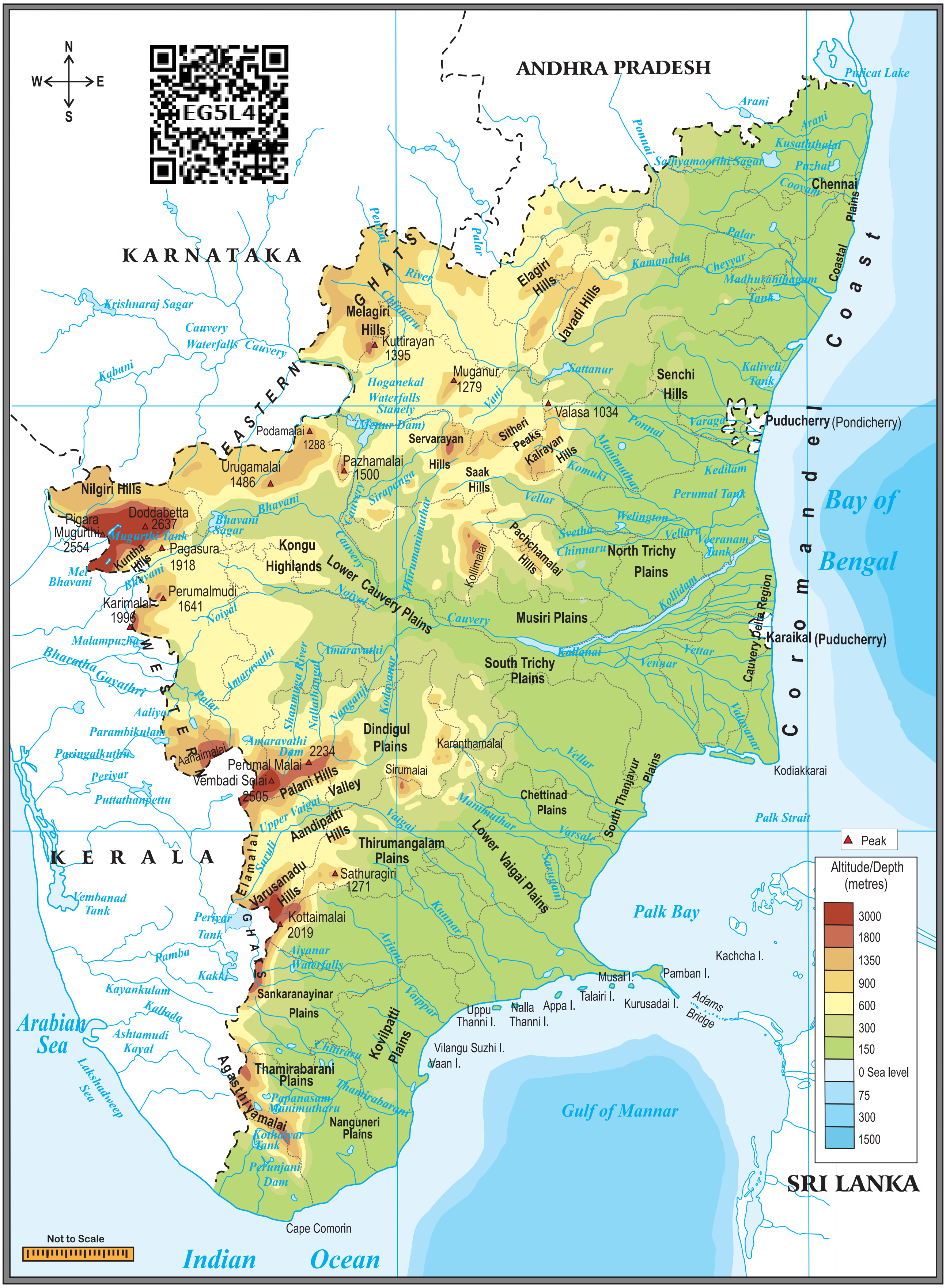
TAMIL NADU - PHYSICAL



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Pachaimalai

It is the lowest hill range, spreads over the districts of Perambalur, Tiruchirapalli and Salem. In Tamil language, pachai means green. The vegetation in this range is greener than the vegetative cover of the other hills in this region. Hence it is named as '**Pachai malai**'. Jackfruit is a popular seasonal agricultural product of this hills.

6.4 Plateaus

Plateaus of Tamil Nadu are located between the Western Ghats and the Eastern Ghats. It is roughly triangular in shape and covers an area of about 60,000 sq.km.

Bharamahal plateau is a part of the Mysore plateau situated in the northwestern part of Tamil Nadu. Its height ranges from 350 to 710 metres. Dharmapuri and Krishnagiri districts are located in this region.

Coimbatore plateau lies between the Nilgiris and Dharmapuri districts. Its height varies from 150 to 450 metres. This region includes Salem, Coimbatore and Erode districts. Moyar river separates this plateau from the Mysore plateau.

Rivers like Bhavani, Noyyal and Amaravathi, which originate from Western Ghats, form valleys in this region. Many intermontane plateaus are found in the region of the Nilgiris. Sigur plateau is one such plateau.

Madurai plateau found in Madurai district extends up to the foothills of the Western Ghats. Vaigai and Thamirabarani basins are located in this zone.

6.5 Plains

The plains of Tamil Nadu may be divided into two, namely

1. Inland plains
2. Coastal plains

Inland plains are drained by the rivers Palar, Ponnaiyar, Cauvery and Thamirabarani. Cauvery plains is one of the most important fertile plains of the state. The plains of Cauvery is found in Salem, Erode, Karur, Tiruchirapalli, Pudukottai, Thanjavur, Tiruvarur and Nagapattinam districts.

Coastal plains of Tamil Nadu are also called Coromandel or Cholamandalam (land of Cholas) plain, which extends from Chennai to Kanyakumari. It is formed by the rivers that flow towards east drain in the Bay of Bengal. It is more than 80 kilometres wide at some places. Though it is an emerged coast, some parts are submerged into the sea. The sand dunes formed along the coast of Ramanathapuram and Thoothukudi districts are called **Teri**. Coral rocks are found at the head of Gulf of Mannar in the east coastal plain.

Beaches

The Coromandel Coast along the Bay of Bengal consists of many beautiful and exotic beaches. The golden sands of Tamil Nadu beaches are scattered with palm and casuarinas groves. Marina and Elliot beaches of Chennai, Kovalam beach in Kanchipuram and Silver beach in Cuddalore are some of the famous beaches in Tamil Nadu.

6.6 Drainage

Rivers of Tamil Nadu are its lifeline. Though it has many rivers, the rivers of Cauvery, Palar, Ponnaiyar, Vaigai and Thamirabarani are the notable ones. Most of the rivers of Tamil Nadu originate from Western Ghats and flow towards east and drain into the Bay of Bengal. All the rivers of the state are non-perennial except Thamirabarani. It is perennial as it is fed by both the southwest and northeast monsoons.

Cauvery

The river Cauvery originates at Talacauvery in the Brahmagiri hills of Kodagu(coorg) district of Karnataka in the Western Ghats. Total length of Cauvery river is 805 km. About 416 km of its course falls in Tamil Nadu. It serves as the boundary between Karnataka and Tamil Nadu for a distance of 64 km. It forms Hogenakkal waterfalls in Dharmapuri district. Mettur Dam, also called

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as the Stanley Reservoir, is located across this river in Salem district. A tributary called Bhavani joins Cauvery on the right bank about 45 km from the Mettur Reservoir. Thereafter, it takes easterly course to enter into the plains of Tamil Nadu. Two more tributaries, Noyyal and Amaravathi, confluence the river on the right bank at Thirumukkudal 10 km from Karur. The river is wider in this region, where it is called as 'Agandra Cauvery'.

In Tiruchirappalli district, the river branches into two parts. The northern branch is called Coleroon or Kollidam and the southern branch remains Cauvery. From here, the Cauvery delta begins. After flowing for about 16 km, the two branches join again to form the '**Srirangam Island**'. The Grand Anaicut, also called as Kallanai was built across the river Cauvery. After Kallanai, the river breaks into a large number of distributaries and forms a network all over the delta. The network of distributaries within the delta of Cauvery in the coast is called as the '**Garden of Southern India**'.

DO YOU KNOW?

Pamban, Hare, Krusadai, Nallathanni Theevu, Pullivasal, Srirangam, Upputanni, Island Grounds, Kattupalli Island, Quibble Island and Vivekananda Rock Memorial are some major islands of Tamil Nadu

Palar

The Palar river rises beyond Talagavara village in the Kolar district of Karnataka. The Palar drains an area of 17,871 sq.km, out of which nearly 57% lies in Tamil Nadu and the rest in the states of Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh. Ponnai, Goundinya Nadhi, Malattar, Cheyyar and Kiliyar are its major tributaries. Its total length is 348 km, out of which 222 km of its course falls in Tamil Nadu. It flows through the districts of Vellore and Kancheepuram before entering into Bay of Bengal near Kuvattur.

Then Pennaiyar/Then Ponnaiyar

It originates from the eastern slope of Nandi Durga hills in eastern Karnataka. It drains an area of 16,019 sq.km, of which nearly 77% lies in Tamil Nadu. It flows for a distance of 247 km in the southeasterly direction in the districts of Krishnagiri, Dharmapuri, Vellore, Tiruvannamalai, Cuddalore and Villupuram. It branches into two, viz. Gadilam and the Ponnaiyar near Tirukoilur Anaicut. Gadilam joins the Bay of Bengal near Cuddalore and Ponnaiyar near the Union Territory of Puducherry. Chinnar, Markandanadhi, Vaniar and Pambar are its tributaries. Heavy rain at the river's source cause sudden but short-lived floods. The river is extensively dammed for irrigation, especially in Tamil Nadu. There are reservoirs at Krishnagiri and Sathanur across this river.

Vaigai

Vaigai river rises from the eastern slopes of the Varusanadu hills of Western Ghats of Tamil Nadu. It drains an area of 7,741 sq.km, which lies entirely in the state of Tamil Nadu. It flows through the districts of Madurai, Sivaganga and Ramanathapuram. Its length is 258 km. It discharges its water into the Ramnad Big Tank and some other small tanks. The surplus water from the tanks is finally discharged into Palk Strait near Ramanathapuram.

Thamirabarani

The name is interpreted as Thamiram (copper) and Varuni (streams of river). The water of this river gives a copper like appearance due to the presence of dissolved suspended red soil. It originates from a peak in Pothigai hills on the Western Ghats above Papanasam in the Ambasamudram taluk. It courses through the districts of Tirunelveli and Thoothukudi and finally flow into the Bay of Bangal near Punnaikayal in Thoothukudi district. Karaiyar, Servalar, Manimuthar, Gadananathi, Pachaiyar, Chittar and Ramanathi are its main

tributaries. It is the only perennial river in South India.

Major waterfalls in Tamil Nadu

District	Waterfalls
Dharmapuri	Hogenakkal
Thirunelveli	Kalyanatheertham
Tenkasi	Courtallam
Theni	Kumbakkarai and Suruli
Namakkal	Agayagangai
The Nilgiri	Catherine and Pykara
Salem	Kiliyur
Virudhunagar	Ayyanar
Coimbatore	Vaideki, Sengupathi, Siruvani and Kovaikutralam
Tiruppur	Tirumurthy
Madurai	Kutladampatti
Kanyakumari	Tirparappu, Kaalikesam, Ulakkai and Vattaparai

6.7 Climate

You have already learnt that the Tropic of Cancer divides India roughly into two equal parts and the state Tamil Nadu lies to the south of Tropic of Cancer, which is near the Equator. As it receives vertical sunrays, the temperature of the state is relatively high throughout the year. Though the state falls within the hot climatic zone, the east coast of Tamil Nadu enjoys tropical maritime climate. The Bay of Bengal and Indian Ocean influence the climate of the coastal regions.

While the east coast experiences tropical maritime climate, the western region of the state enjoys the mountainous climate. Low altitude and distance from the sea are the reasons for high temperature and dry conditions in the central part of Tamil Nadu. The migration of vertical sun's rays leads to the formation of different seasons in Tamil Nadu as follows.

Seasons of Tamil Nadu	
Season	**Period**
Winter Season	January-February
Summer Season	March- May
Southwest Monsoon	June-September
Northeast Monsoon	October –December

Winter Season

During January and February, the vertical rays of the sun fall between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Equator. Hence, Tamil Nadu and India on the whole receive slanting rays from the sun. So, the weather is slightly cooler during these months. Winter temperature in Tamil Nadu varies from 15°C to 25°C. However, in the hill stations, the winter temperature drops below 5°C occasionally. Some valleys in the Nilgiris record even 0°C. This drop in temperature leads to the formation of thick mist and frost. This season is practically dry.

Summer Season

The apparent migration of the sun towards north during March, April and May results in the reception of vertical sun's rays by South India. Thus there is a steady rise in temperature from the equator. Hence, Tamil Nadu located to the south of Tropic of Cancer, experiences high temperature. Generally the temperature varies from 30°C to more than 40°C. During this season particularly in the month of May, southern part of the state receives some rainfall from pre-monsoon showers (Mango/

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Blossom showers) and some parts experience convectional rainfall.

Southwest Monsoon

The intense heating of the landmass of the north by the sun during March to May creates a well-developed low pressure in North India, which draws wind from the Indian Ocean. This results in the formation of southwest monsoon. During this season, Tamil Nadu is located in the rain shadow region for the wind, which blows from the Arabian Sea. As a result, Tamil Nadu receives only a meagre rainfall from this monsoon. Rainfall during this season decreases from west to east. Coimbatore plateau receives an average of 50 cm rainfall. However, the like Kanyakumari, Tenkasi, Tirunelveli and The Nilgiris record 50–100 cm rainfall during this period. The rainfall is scanty in the eastern part of the state.

Northeast Monsoon

The northeast monsoon season commences from the month of October and lasts till mid-December. The high pressure created over Central Asia and northern part of India becomes the source for the northeast monsoon winds. The apparent migration of the sun from Tropic of Cancer to the Tropic of Capricorn causes a change in receiving temperature and air pressure during this season. It makes the wind to blow towards Bay of Bengal from North India and get deflected by Coriolis force and takes the northeast direction. Hence it is known as northeast monsoon. As the northeast monsoon is a part of returning of southwest monsoon wind, it is also called as the retreating monsoon. This is the main rainy season for Tamil Nadu, accounting for its 48% of annual rainfall. Coastal districts of the state get nearly 60% of their annual rainfall and the interior districts get about 40–50% of the annual rainfall during this season.

Tropical cyclones are common during this season. Cyclone originating from the Bay of Bengal bring heavy rainfall to the east coastal regions of Tamil Nadu. More than 50% of the state's rainfall is received from tropical cyclones during this period and east coastal region receives 100 to 200 cm of rainfall. The rainfall received by the central and northwestern parts is 50–100 cm. The cyclones sometimes disturb the cultivation of crops and cause severe damage to life and property.

DO YOU KNOW?

Chinnakallar near Valparai is the 3rd wettest place in India and the wettest place in Tamil Nadu.

6.8 Soils of Tamil Nadu

The soils in Tamil Nadu are broadly classified into five types according to their characteristics. They are 1. alluvial soil, 2. black soil, 3. red soil, 4. laterite soil, 5. saline soil.

Alluvial Soil

Alluvial soils are formed by the deposition of silt by the rivers. It is found in the river valley regions and the coastal plains of Tamil Nadu. Generally this type of soil is found in the districts of Thanjavur, Tiruvarur, Mayiladuthurai, Nagapattinam, Kallakurichi, Villupuram, Cuddalore, Tenkasi, Tirunelveli and Kanyakumari. It is also found to a small extent along the river valleys in few interior districts.

Black Soil

Black soils are formed by the weathering of igneous rocks. It is also known as regur soil. As cotton grows well in this soil, it is also called as black cotton soil. Black soils are found extensively in the districts of Coimbatore, Madurai, Virudhunagar, Tenkasi, Tirunelveli and Thoothukudi.

Red Soil

Red soils cover over two-thirds of the total area of Tamil Nadu. They are found particularly in the central districts of the state. It is dominantly found in Sivagangai and Ramanathapuram districts.

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Laterite Soil

This soil is formed by the process of intense leaching. Laterite soils are found in some parts of Chengalpattu, Kancheepuram, Tiruvallur and Thanjavur districts and some patches over the mountainous region in the Nilgiris.

Saline Soil

Saline soils in Tamil Nadu are confined to the Coromandel coast. Vedaranyam has a pocket of saline soil. However, the tsunami waves on December 26, 2004 brought a lot of sand and deposited it all along the east coast of Tamil Nadu. The tsunami made the coastal areas unsuitable for cultivation to a considerable extent.

6.9 Soil Erosion

Soil is a non-renewable resource. It is very difficult to replace the soil once it gets degraded. Deforestation, overgrazing, urbanisation and heavy rain are responsible for soil erosion in Tamil Nadu. Soil erosion reduces the fertility of soils, which in turn reduces agricultural productivity. So, it is necessary to take intensive care to conserve the soil resources.

6.10 Natural Vegetation

Natural vegetation refers to the forest cover. Landforms, nature of soil, temperature and rainfall are the major factors that control the distribution of natural vegetation. As per National Forest Policy, 1988, a minimum of one-third of the total geographical area must be under forest cover. The total forest cover of Tamil Nadu is far lower than this. According to the Tamil Nadu State of Forest Report - 2022 assessment, the area under forest in the state is 26,419 sq.km, which constitutes 20.31% of the total area. Tamil Nadu constitutes 2.99% of India's forest cover. The forest types in the state varies from wet evergreen to scrub forests.

Forest Types

The forest in the state is broadly divided into five types as follows

Tropical Evergreen Forest

This forest type is found in the regions that receive heavy rainfall. It is a dense, multi-layered forest. It is found in the upper slopes of Western Ghats of Tirunelveli, Tenkasi, Kanyakumari, the Nilgiris and Coimbatore districts. The major tree species of this forest are cinnamon, Malabar ironwood, panasa, java plum/jamun, jack, kindal, ayani and crape myrtle. The semi-evergreen type of forest in the state is found over the regions of sub-tropical climate over the Eastern Ghats. The prominent regions are Servarayan, Kollimalai and Pachaimalai. Species of Indian mahogany, monkey teak, woolly cassia, jack and mango trees are common in this region.

Montane Temperate Forest

It is found in sheltered valleys of Anaimalai, Nilgiris and Palani hills over a 1000 metres altitude. They are known as '**Sholas**'. The trees in this forest are evergreen and usually short. Nilgiri champa, wights litsea and rose apple are the common trees found in this forest.

Tropical Deciduous Forest

This type of forest lies in the margin of semi-evergreen and evergreen forests. The trees in this forest shed their leaves during the dry season. The trees reach up to a height of 30 metres. Some trees of this forest are silk cotton, kapok, kadamba, dog teak, woman's tounge, axlewood and siris. Bamboos are also common in this type of forests. Some trees of this forest are economically important.

Mangrove Forest

This type of forest is found in the coastal areas, river deltas, tails of islands and over sea faces where accretion is in progress. The vegetation is typically evergreen, moderate in height and has leathery leaves. The vegetation of this forest is adapted to survive in tidal mud and salt water. Asiatic mangrove, white mangrove, wild jasmine/Indian pivot etc.

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Pichavaram mangrove forest is located near Chidambaram, Cuddalore district. This is the second largest mangrove forest in the world covering about 1,100 hectares (11 sq.km) of area. It is separated from the Bay of Bengal by a sandbar. It consists of species like Avicennia and Rhizophora.

are some of the notable trees of this forest. Pichavaram, Vedaranyam, Muthupet, Chatram and Thoothukudi are the places in Tamil Nadu where the mangrove forest is found to a considerable extent.

Role of Mangroves in Coastal Zone Management.

Mangroves helps in the prevention of coastal erosion from waves and storms. It also protects coral reefs and sea grass meadows from being smothered in sediments.

Tropical Thorn Forest

Thorn forest in Tamil Nadu is found where there is a little rainfall. These forests are found from plains up to 400 meters altitude. The common trees of this forest are rusty acacia, wheel, neem and palm. Shrubs are common vegetation in this type of forest. This type of forest is found in the districts of Dharmapuri, Ramanathapuram, Virudhunagar and some parts of interior districts.

Districts with prominent forest cover in Tamil Nadu	
District	**Area (sq km)**
Erode	2,295
Coimbatore	1,985
Dindigul	1,877
Vellore	1,824
The Nilgiris	1,731
Dharmapuri	1,702

6.11 Wild life

Animals and birds live in forests constitute the wild life. Tamil Nadu has a variety of wild animals, birds and reptiles. hills are an ideal refuge for elephants, bisons, tigers, deer and monkeys.

Several Wildlife sanctuaries and National Parks have been set up to protect the animal life in the state.

S. No	Biosphere Reserves in Tamil Nadu
1	Nilgiri Biosphere Reserve
2	Gulf of Mannar Biosphere Reserve
3	Agasthiyarmalai Biosphere Reserve

Tamil Nadu is a state with varied climate, landforms and resources. This makes our state a distinct one among the Indian states. In Tamil Nadu, If the available resources are utilised rationally, it may continue to be at top in the country. So, it is the duty of the every individual to strive towards achieving this goal.

6.12 Natural Disasters in Tamil Nadu

A sudden natural catastrophe that causes great damage or loss to lives and properties is called as disaster.

According to United Nations office for Disaster Risk Reduction, Disaster Risk Reduction(UNDRR) is the concept and practice of reducing disaster risks through systematic efforts to analyse and reduce the causal factors of disasters. This includes reducing exposure to hazards, lessening the vulnerability of people and property, wise management of land and environment, and improving preparedness and early warning for adverse events.

Here we will discuss about the natural disasters in Tamil Nadu and the measures to be adopted before, during and after different disasters.

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Tamil Nadu Wildlife Sanctuaries & Bird Sanctuaries

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Landslide

A collapse of a mass of earth or rock from a mountain or cliff is called landslide. Water is the most common trigger of a **landslide.** Nilgiris in Tamil Nadu is identified as one of the most vulnerable districts in the country and landslides pose a major threat in this area. The other regions which are prone to land slides are Coimbatore and palani hill of Dindigul district where Kodaikanal hill station is located.

Risk Reduction Measures

Before: Create awareness; stay alert and awake; monitor the news updates; make evacuation plan; listen for any unusual sounds that might indicate moving debris such as trees cracking, boulders knocking and consider leaving the place of landslide if it is safe to do so.

Landslide

After- Stay away from the slide area; listen to local radio or television stations for the latest emergency information; watch for flooding, which may occur after a landslide or debris flow; check for injured and trapped persons near the slide, without entering the direct slide area.

Flood

Flood is a common one in the coastal districts of Tamil Nadu during northeast monsoon. The recent flood occurred in the state was in 2015.

Risk Reduction Measures

Before: Know about relief centres and evacuation routes; keep emergency phone numbers and important information; fold and roll up things on to higher ground.

During: Be quick, keep safe and ensure that children and elderly are safe by leaving the house to a higher ground; turn off all electrical appliances and gas; leave the area before its get too late; do not drive through the water; stay away from power lines or broken power transmission cables and try to keep away from flood water.

After: Make sure to get back inside your house, keep all power and electrical appliances off before it is okay to put them on and wear appropriate dress before cleaning house which is necessary to clean the contamination.

Flood

Cyclone

The coastal regions of Tamil Nadu are often hit by the tropical cyclones formed in Bay of Bengal during northeast monsoon. Occurrence of flood, losses to lives and properties are the recurring one in the state. Based on the cyclone hit areas, the state of Tamil Nadu can be divided into five zones namely very high, high, medium, low and very low cyclone prone zones.

Cyclone

Risk Reduction Measures

Before: Ignore rumours, stay calm, don't be panic; Keep your mobile phones charged to ensure connectivity; use sms; listen to radio; watch TV; read newspapers for weather updates. Keep your documents and valuables in water proof containers; prepare an emergency kits with essential items for survival; secure your house; carry out repairs; don't leave sharp objects loose; untie cattle/animals for their safety. Fishermen should keep a radio set with extra batteries handy; keep boats and rafts tied up safely and don't venture out in the sea.

During: Take care of the old and young, keep all family members inside the house; switch of all electrical appliances, stay in an empty room, movable items should be kept securely tied; try to help your neighbours but, don't go out during cyclone.

After: Those who shifted to the cyclone centre must remain there till instructions are received; strictly avoid loose electrical wires after the cyclone; beware of snakes and other animals immediately after the cyclone; clear debris and carcasses from/near the premise after the cyclone and report losses truthfully and accurately to the authorities.

Drought

Tamil Nadu is water deficit state. It is almost a regular one and not a seasonal one. It depends mostly on northeast monsoon for its rain. Its failure ends in disastrous.

To manage the water deficit, rain water harvesting and water conservation methods have to be implemented strictly.

Drought

Some methods of water conservation are:

Protection of water from pollution; redistribution of water; rational use of groundwater; population control; renovation of traditional water sources; use of modern irrigation methods; increasing forest cover; changing crop pattern; flood management and use of geothermal water are some of the major water conservation methods.

Fire Accident

Tamil Nadu is a tropical state. The high temperature during summer leads to occasional forest fire in deciduous and thorn forests.

Forest Fire

Risk Reduction Measures

Before: Create defensible space to separate your home from flammable vegetation and materials (30 feet); follow all local fire and building codes; keep all trees and shrubs trimmed. Use approved fire resistant materials; make evacuation plans with family members which include several options with an outside meeting place.

During: Listen to radio; watch tv; read newspapers for updates; if adequate water are available fill buckets with water. turn a light on a room in case of smoke; turn off gas and electrical appliances and be ready to evacuate all family members.

After: Check with fire officials before attempting to return to your home; use caution when re-entering a burned area - flare ups can occur; check grounds for hot spots and check the roof and exterior areas for sparks and embers.

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Tsunami

Though Tsunami is not a common one in India, its incident in 2004 alerted India and the state of Tamil Nadu on this aspect.

Tsunami

Risk Reduction Measures

Before: if you live in a coastal area, know about tsunami risk and local warning arrangements; develop household emergency plan; know where the nearest high ground is and how you will reach it.

During: Take your get away kit, don't travel areas at risk; move immediately nearest high ground; if you can't escape tsunami, go to an upper storey of the building or climb onto a roof or tree or grab a floating objects; never go to the shore to watch tsunami and listen to local radio stations as emergency management.

After: Continue to listen to the radio; don't return to the evacuation zone until authorities have given all clear; check yourself for injuries and get first aid and help others.

6.12.7 Earthquakes

India is a vast country which experiences many earthquakes at different periods. Generally high risk zones of the country are located in the north and central parts. The state of Tamil Nadu is located in the moderately low risk zone.

Risk Reduction Measures

During: Take cover under a strong table or any other piece of furniture and remain under cover until the shaking stops.

After: Proceed cautiously once the earthquake has stopped and always avoid roads, bridges that might have been damaged by the earthquake.

For the management of disasters in the state, the following forces and organizations are in service.

State/Union Territories organizations

1. State Disaster Management Authority (Chairman-Chief Minister)
2. Relief/ Disaster Management Department
3. Police
4. Forest Department
5. Fire and Civil Defence Services
6. Health Services
7. Transport Department
8. Public Works Department
9. Veterinary Services
10. Food & Civil Supplied Department.

District Organizations

1. District Magistrate (Chairman-District Collector)
2. Revenue Department
3. Civil Administration,
4. Local Police,
5. Civil Defence,
6. Fire & Emergency Services,
7. Home Guards (also Local Community, Non-Governmental Organisations, Voluntary Agencies) etc.

SUMMARY

- Physical geography is the branch of geography dealing with the different physical aspects such as landforms, drainage, climate, soil, natural vegetation etc.
- Tamil Nadu is broadly classified into three physical divisions namely mountains (Western and Eastern Ghats), plateaus (Bharamahal, Coimbatore and Madurai) and plains (inland and coastal).

- Cauvery, Palar, Ponnaiyar, Vaigai and Thamirabarani are the major rivers of Tamil Nadu.
- Soils of Tamil Nadu are classified into five types according to their characteristics. They are alluvial, black, red, laterite and saline.
- The forest cover of Tamil Nadu is 20.31% of its geographical area. Evergreen, deciduous, mangrove, thorny and montane temperate are its major forest types.
- Disaster Risk Reduction is reducing risks through systematic efforts.
- Natural disasters are earthquakes, volcanoes, landslides, cyclones, droughts and forest fires.

EXERCISE

RHUS5

I Choose the correct answer

1. The latitudinal extent of Tamil Nadu is
   a) 8°4′N to 13°35′N
   b) 8°5′S to 13°35′S
   c) 8°0′N to 13°5′N
   d) 8°0′S to 13°05′S
2. The longitudinal extent of Tamil Nadu is
   a) 76°18′ E to 80°20′E
   b) 76°18′ W to 80°20′W
   c) 86°18′ E to 10°20′E
   d) 86°18′ W to 10°20′W
3. The highest peak in Tamil Nadu is
   a) Anaimudi
   b) Doddabetta
   c) Mahendragiri
   d) Servarayan
4. Which of the following passes is not located in the Western Ghats of Tamil Nadu?
   a) Palghat
   b) Shencottah
   c) Bhorghat
   d) Achankoil
5. Which one of the following rivers is flow into the Arabian Sea?
   a) Periyar
   b) Cauvery
   c) Chittar
   d) Bhavani
6. The district with largest mangrove forest cover in Tamil Nadu is
   a) Ramanathapuram
   b) Nagapattinam
   c) Cuddalore
   d) Theni
7. Retreating monsoon wind picks up moisture from
   a) Arabian sea
   b) Bay of Bengal
   c) Indian Ocean
   d) Timor sea
8. The district which has the largest forest cover in Tamil Nadu is
   a) Dharmapuri
   b) Vellore
   c) Dindigul
   d) Erode

II Fill in the blanks

1. The plateau which lies between the Nilgiris and Dharmapuri districts is ____________.
2. ____________ is the highest peak in the southern most part of the Eastern Ghats.
3. The riverine Island of Srirangam is located

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between ___________ and ___________ branches of cauvery.

4. ___________is the Tamil Nadu state animal.

III Match the following

1.	Winter season	-	Pre-monsoon
2.	Summer season	-	June to September
3.	Southwest monsoon	-	March to May
4.	North east monsoon	-	January and February
5.	Mango Shower	-	October to December

IV Assertion type Question

1. **Assertion (A):** Tamil Nadu does not receive much rainfall from southwest monsoon. **Reason (R):** It is situated in the rain shadow area of the Western Ghats.
   a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) explains (A).
   b) Both (A) and (R) are true but, (R) does not explain (A).
   c) (A) is true but, (R) is false.
   d) (R) is true but, (A) is false.

V Answer the following in brief

1. State the boundaries of Tamil Nadu.
2. What is 'Teri'?
3. How is coastal plain formed?
4. Name the major islands of Tamil Nadu.
5. Name the tributaries of river Thamirabarani.
6. Define : Disaster Risk Reduction.
7. During cyclone, how does the Meterological department warn the fishermen?

VI Distinguish between the following

1. Thamiraparani and Cauvery

VII Give reasons for the following

1. Eastern Ghats are not a continuous range.
2. Tamil Nadu receives low rainfall during southwest monsoon.

VIII Answer the following in a paragraph

1. Describe the nature of the plateau region of Tamil Nadu.
2. Write an account on river Cauvery.
3. Bring out the types and distribution of soils in Tamil Nadu.
4. What are the Risk reduction measures taken before and after cyclone.

IX Map study

1. Mark important rivers, distribution of soil and forest types on different Tamil Nadu maps.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

1. http://www.tn.gov.in/ta/Tamil Nadustate
2. https://www.forests.tn.gov.in
3. http://www.india-wris.nrsc.gov.in/wrpinfo/index.php?title=Major_Rivers_Flowing_in_Tamil_Nadu
4. http://www.environment.tn.nic.in/
5. http://agritech.tnau.ac.in/

ICT CORNER

Tamil Nadu: Disasters And Awareness

Through this activity you will learn about Disaster Management Activities in Tamil Nadu.

Step – 1 Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.

Step – 2 Change ‘Language’ in Top menu and go to ‘Media and Public Awareness’ and select ‘Infographics’.

Step – 3 Click on ‘Download’ to view details of precautions by Tamil Nadu State Disaster Management Authority

Step-1

Step-2

Step-3

Website URL:

https://tnsdma.tn.gov.in/

* Pictures are indicatives only.

* If browser requires, allow Flash Player or Java Script to load the page

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Unit - 7

Human Geography of Tamil Nadu

Learning Objectives

- To understand the agricultural factors, major crops and their distribution in Tamil Nadu
- To learn about the water resources of Tamil Nadu
- To study the mineral and industrial resources of Tamil Nadu
- To analyze the population and its composition in Tamil Nadu
- To learn about the man made disasters in Tamil Nadu

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Introduction

Human geography refers to the study of ways of development of human societies and their operation in relation to their physical environment. This chapter focuses on the distribution, characteristics and utilisation of different resources in Tamil Nadu. We have studied earlier that the earth is endowed with a variety of natural resources such as landforms, rivers, soil, natural vegetation, water and wildlife. These resources are useful only when they are utilised. Human beings use these resources using their intelligence and skill. Thus, the human beings are the most significant resource on the earth surface. They turn all these natural resources into useful products with their skills and abilities.

7.1 Agriculture

The word "**agriculture**" is derived from the Latin words "**ager and cultura**", which means field and growing. Agriculture is a practice of farming that includes the cultivation of crops, rearing of animals, birds, forestry, fisheries and other related activities. Agriculture is the major occupation in Tamil Nadu. Agriculture has been the mainstay of the state's economy since independence with more than 65% of the population depends upon this sector for their living. Agriculture provides employment for rural people on a large scale. There is a strong link between agriculture and economic growth. Paddy, millets and pulses are the principal food crops of the state. Sugarcane, cotton, sunflower, coconut, cashew, chillies, gingelly, groundnut, tea, coffee, cardamom and rubber are the major commercial crops.

7.2 Geographical determinants of Agriculture

Landform, climate, soil and irrigation are the factors that determine the growth of agriculture.

Landform

Tamil Nadu is a land of diverse landscape comprising of hills, plateaus and plains. Among them the plains are most suitable for agriculture. The plains with alluvial soil enhances agricultural productivity. Example: Plains of cauvery. Agriculture in the plateau is moderate and is poor on the hills.

Climate

Tamil Nadu is situated in the tropical zone, which is nearer to the equator. The state experiences a tropical climate. Hence, the temperature in Tamil Nadu is relatively high almost throughout the year. So, only the tropical crops are cultivated. Water is another limiting factor of agriculture. Northeast monsoon is the major source of rainfall for Tamil Nadu. Therefore, the major cropping season begins with this season. The rainfall in this season and the irrigation facilities affect agriculture to a large extent.

Soil

Soil is one of the most essential elements of agriculture. It provides essential minerals or nutrients for the growth of crops and vegetation. The regions of river valleys and the coastal plains are the most agriculturally productive regions of the state as they are covered with fertile alluvial soil.

Irrigation

Monsoon rainfall in the state is highly irregular. Further it is seasonal. Hence, irrigation becomes necessary for successful cultivation of crops in the state. In the dry regions, rain-fed crops are cultivated.

Types and regions of Agriculture Practices in Tamil Nadu

Farming type	Area practiced
Subsistence intensive agriculture	Practiced all over Tamil Nadu with few exceptions.
Plantation Agriculture	Hill slopes of Eastern and Western Ghats.
Mixed farming	Banks of River Cauvery and Thenpennai.

7.3 Cropping Seasons in Tamil Nadu

Farmers select different crops for different seasons of cultivation. It is based on the temperature and availability of moisture in the soil. Accordingly, the state has the following cropping seasons.

Name	Sowing	Harvesting	Major crops
Sornavari (chittirai pattam)	April-May	August-September	Millets and cotton
Samba (Adipattam)	July-August	January-February	Paddy and sugarcane
Navarai	November -December	February-March	Fruits, vegetables, cucumber and watermelon

7.4 Distribution of major crops in Tamil Nadu

Paddy

Paddy is the most important staple food crop of Tamil Nadu. Ponni and kichadi samba are the major varieties of paddy grown in Tamil Nadu. Though it is cultivated all over Tamil Nadu, its cultivation is highly concentrated in Thanjavur, Tiruvarur, Tiruvallur, Kancheepuram, Villupuram, Cuddalore and

Paddy Cultivation

DO YOU KNOW? The Tamil Nadu Rice Research Institute (TRRI) is an Indian research institute working in the field of rice under Tamil Nadu Agricultural University (TNAU).It is situated at Aduthurai, in Thanjavur district, it was established in April, 1985 in TNAU to meet the research requirements of the region with the help of existing Agricultural Colleges and Research centres and perform lead function for rice and rice based cropping system research.

Tirunelveli districts. It ranks third in the production of rice among the states of India. The deltaic region of river cauvery (the undivided Thanjavur district) is the major rice-producing region of Tamil Nadu. So, this region is rightly called as the **"Granary of Tamil Nadu."**

Millets

Millets form staple food of nearly one-third of human population of Tamil Nadu. Sorghum/jowar (cholam), ragi (kezhvaragu) and bajra (kambu) are the major millets. These are grown not only in drier areas but also in the coastal plains. Sorghum is grown in the Coimbatore plateau and Kambam valley. Ragi is grown in Coimbatore, Dharmapuri, Vellore and Cuddalore districts. Bajra is mostly cultivated in Ramanathapuram, Tirunelveli, Tenkasi, Karur, Perambalur and Salem districts.

India observed 2018 as national year of millets. FAO has decided to observe 2023 as the International year of millets.

Pulses

Pulses are the major source of protein. Bengal gram, black gram, green gram, cowpea and horse gram are the important pulses grown in Tamil Nadu. Pulses are grown in a wide range of climatic conditions mostly in drier regions with or without irrigation. Mild cool climate and a low to moderate rainfall are best suited for these crops. Pulses serve as excellent fodder. Pulses are grown in almost all districts in the state except Chennai, Nilgiris and Kanyakumari. Coimbatore leads in the production of Bengal gram. Vellore and Salem districts produce red gram. Tiruvarur, Nagapattinam, Mayiladuthurai and Thoothukudi districts are the principal producers of green gram and black gram. Horse gram is widely cultivated in Dharmapuri and Krishnagiri districts.

Oil Seeds

Groundnut, gingelly castor, coconut, sunflower and mustard are some of the oilseeds that are grown in Tamil Nadu. Apart from its use in food preparation, it is used in industries as a lubricant, in the manufacture of varnish, soaps, candles, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals. Groundnut is the major oilseed of the state. The cultivation of groundnut is mostly concentrated in Vellore, Tiruvannamalai, Villupuram, Kalakurichi, Salem and Pudukottai districts. It is also grown to some extent in Dharmapuri, Cuddalore, Perambalur and Madurai. Erode, Ramanathapuram, Sivagangai and Virudhunagar districts are its minor producers. Coconut is grown in Coimbatore, Thanjavur and Kanyakumari districts.

Second Green Revolution (Eco-Farming or Organic Farming)

In organic farming synthetic fertilizers, pesticides, growth regulator and livestock feed additives are not used. This type of farming rely on crop rotation, crop residues, animal manure, off-farm organic wastes and biological pest control to maintain soil productivity. This farming method is being adopted by very few farmers in the state.

Sugarcane

It is one of the major cash crops of the state. It is an annual crop. It requires high temperature and heavy rainfall. It grows well in the tropical region. Major sugarcane-producing districts are Tiruvallur, Kancheepuram, Chengalpattu, Vellore, Ranipet, Tirupattur, Cuddalore, Tiruchirapalli, Coimbatore, Erode, Tirunelveli and Tenkasi.

Cotton

Cotton is a fibre and cash crop. It requires black soil, long frost-free condition and warm and humid weather for its cultivation. Humid weather in the early stages and hot, dry weather during harvest period is suitable for this crop. It is predominantly cultivated in Coimbatore plateau and Vaigai-Vaippar river basins. It is also cultivated in Madurai, Ramanathapuram, Virudhunagar, Tirunelveli, Thoothukudi, Salem and Dharmapuri districts.

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TANTEA (TANTEA-Tamil Nadu Tea Plantation Corporation Limited) is one of the Biggest Black Tea Producers in India with high quality clonal tea. Its plantation spreads over nearly 4500 hec.

Plantation crops

Tea, coffee, cashew, rubber and pepper are the major plantation crops of the state. Tamil Nadu ranks second in area and production of tea in India next to Assam. Tea plantations are found in the hills of the Nilgiris and Coimbatore. Coffee plants are grown in the hilly slopes of Dindigul, Madurai, Theni, Namakkal and Salem districts. Yercaud, Kolli Hills and Kodaikanal are notable for coffee plantations. Tamil Nadu stands second in area and production of coffee next to Karnataka. Rubber plantations are significant in Kanyakumari. Pepper is confined to the warm and wet slopes of Eastern and Western Ghats of Tamil Nadu. Cashew is extensively cultivated in Cuddalore district.

To promote organic farming a central scheme named 'National Project on Organic Farming' was launched Apart from general things (creating awareness, promoting organic fertilizers, training, capacity building etc.), the scheme provides financial assistance through Capital Investment Subsidy Scheme for agro-waste compost production units, bio-fertilizers/bio-pesticides production units, development and implementation of quality control regime, human resource development etc.

7.5 Livestock/Animal Husbandry

Livestock has remained an integral part of socio-economic fabric of rural people.

Goat

Goat is also known as **'poor man's cow'** in India. It forms a very important component in dry land farming system. In the marginal or undulating lands unsuitable for rearing of other types of cattle like cow or buffalo, goat is the best alternative. With very low investments, goat rearing can be made into a profitable venture for small and marginal farmers.

Tamil Nadu Dairy Development Corporation Ltd. was transformed into the newly registered Tamil Nadu Co-operative Milk Producers Federation Limited Popularly known as "**Aavin**".

Sheep

Sheep is used for multiple purposes like wool, meat, milk, skins and manure, and forms an important component of the rural economy, particularly in the arid, semi-arid and mountainous areas of Tamil Nadu. It provides a dependable source of income to the shepherds through the sale of wool and animals.

Fishing

Since Tamil Nadu is a coastal state, fishing is one of the major occupations in the state. With widespread reservoirs and rivers, inland fishing also is also seen to a considerable extent.

Marine Fishing

Tamil Nadu coastal length is 906.9 km. An area of 41,412 sq.km of continental shelves of the state favours coastal fishing and Tamil Nadu is one of the leading states in marine fish production. Marine fishing is also called inshore fish or neritic fishing, carried out in oceans and seas. Large mechanised boats are used for fishing. In ocean or seawaters, fishing within few kilometres from the shoreline is called inshore fishing and the fishing far from the shore typically 20–30 miles out in water hundreds and thousands of feet deep is called off-shore fishing. The fish varieties caught are sharks, flying fish, counch, catfish, silver bellies, and crabs. Chennai, Kanyakumari, Tirunelveli, Nagapattinam, Thanjavur and Ramanathapuram districts contribute about 40% to marine fish production in the state. Their coastal location favours fishing in these regions.

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Inland Fishing

Inland fishing is carried out in lakes, rivers, ponds, estuaries, backwaters and swamps. Oysters and prawns are cultured in original nurseries. Catamaran, diesel boats and floating nets are used in fishing. Tamil Nadu Fisheries Department has introduced several programmes for the betterment of fishing. Vellore district leads in the production of inland fish production with 10% of state's production. Cuddalore, Sivagangai and Virudhunagar districts stand second with 9% of inland fish catch each.

7.6 Water Resource

Water is the precious gift of nature to humankind and millions of other species living on the earth.

Tamil Nadu constitutes 4% of India's land area and is inhabited by 6% of India's population, but has only 2.5% percent of India's water resources. More than 95% of the surface water and 80% of the ground water have already been put into use.

Surface Water Resources	Numbers
River Basin	17
Reservoirs	81
Tanks	41,127
Tube wells and other wells	4,98,644
Open wells	15,06,919
Total (Million Cubic metres)	2046788 MCM

Multipurpose River Valley Projects

Multipurpose river valley projects are basically designed for the development of irrigation for agriculture and hydropower generation. However, they are used for many other purposes as well.

Mettur Dam

The Mettur Dam was constructed in a gorge, where river Cauvery enters the plains. It is one of the oldest dam in India. It provides irrigation to Salem, Erode, Karur, Tiruchirappalli, Thanjavur, Tiruvarur and Nagapattinam districts farmlands.

Mettur Dam

Bhavani Sagar Dam

The Bhavani Sagar Dam is located 80 km away from Coimbatore city in the district of Erode. It has been constructed across the river Bhavani. This dam is one of the biggest earthen dams in the country.

Amaravathi Dam

The Amaravathi dam is situated 25 km away from Udumalpet in Tirupur district. The dam has been constructed across the river Amaravathi, a tributary of Cauvery. The dam was built primarily for irrigation and flood control. A small hydropower station has also been installed recently.

Krishnagiri Dam

Krishnagiri dam is situated at a distance of 7 km from Krishnagiri towards Dharmapuri.

Sathanur Dam

Sathanur Dam was constructed across the river Thenpennai in Chengam taluk. It is in the midst of Chennakesava hills. It irrigates the land in Thandrampet and Tiruvannamalai blocks. There is also a large crocodile farm and a fish grotto. Parks are maintained inside the dam for tourists and the gardens are used by the film industry.

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Mullaiperiyar Dam

Mullaiperiyar dam was built by the British administration in 1895. It has been constructed on the Periyar river, which originates from Thekkady hills of Kerala. The dam was built mainly for watering the farming land of Tamil Nadu, which is perennially drought-prone.

Vaigai Dam

This dam built across the river Vaigai near Andipatti. The dam with a height of 111 feet can store water up to 71 feet. It is located 7 km from Andipatti and 70 km from Madurai. This dam was opened on 21 January, 1959.

Manimuthar Dam

Manimuthar dam is located about 47 km from Tirunelveli.

The Papanasam Dam

It is also known as Karaiyar dam and is located about 49 km away from Tirunelveli. The dam is used to irrigate Tirunelveli and Thoothukudi districts.

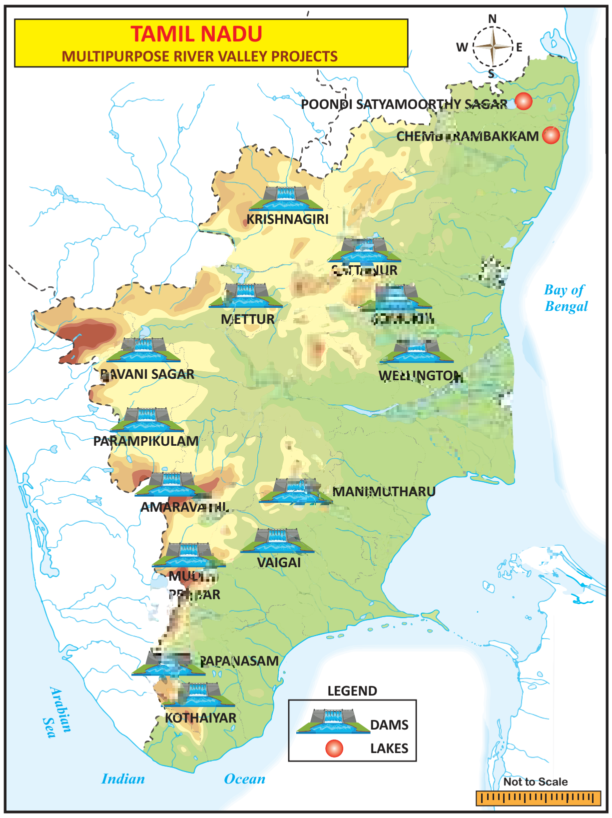
Parampikulam Aliyar Project

It is a joint venture of Tamil Nadu and Kerala states. It envisages the construction of seven interconnected reservoirs by harnessing the water of seven rivers, which include major rivers of Parambikulam and Aliyar.

Parappalar project is located near Ottanchatram. Its storage capacity is 167 million cubic feet of water. It is about 75 km from Madurai and is in Palani taluk.

Water Resource Management

Water resource management is the activity of planning, developing, distributing and managing the optimum use of water resources. The demand for water in Tamil Nadu is increasing at a fast rate both due to increasing population and also due to larger per capita needs triggered by economic growth. Demands from other sectors such as domestic and industries have been growing significantly. The state is heavily dependent on monsoon rains. Since the state is entirely dependent on rains for recharging its water resources, monsoon failures lead to acute water scarcity and severe droughts. So, it is important to save water for us and the future generation.



7.7 Mineral Resources

Tamil Nadu is the leading holder of country's resources of vermiculite, magnetite, dunite, rutile, garnet, molybdenum and ilmenite. Neyveli has large lignite resources. Oil and gas are found in the Cauvery basin.

Iron ore deposits are found in Kanjamalai region in Salem district and Kavuthi and Vediyappan Malai region of Tiruvannamalai district. Bauxite is found in Servarayan Hills, Kotagiri, Udagamandalam, Palani and Kollimalai areas. Gypsum is obtained in Tiruchirappalli, Tirunelveli, Thoothukudi and Virudhunagar districts. Ilmenite and rutile are found in the sands of Kanyakumari beach. Limestone is available in Coimbatore, Cuddalore, Dindigul, Kancheepuram, Karur, Madurai, Nagapattinam, Namakkal, Perambalur, Ramanathapuram, Salem and Tiruvallur districts. Magnesite is obtained in Coimbatore, Dharmapuri, Karur,

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Namakkal, the Nilgiris, Salem, Tiruchirapalli, Tirunelveli, Tirupattur and Vellore districts. Feldspar, quartz, copper and lead are also found in some parts of the state.

7.8 Industries

Industries use raw materials and convert them into usable product or goods. Textiles, sugar, paper, leather, cement, electrical equipment, automobiles, information technology and tourism are the major industries of Tamil Nadu.

Textile Industry

Textile industry is one of the traditionally well-developed industries in Tamil Nadu. The textile mills are concentrated in Coimbatore, Tirupur, Salem, Palladam, Karur, Dindigul, Virudhunagar, Tirunelveli, Thoothukudi, Madurai and Erode. Erode in Tamil Nadu is well known for marketing of handloom, power loom and readymade garments. Coimbatore is also known as the 'Manchester of South India. Coimbatore, Tirupur, Erode, Karur and Salem contribute a major share to the state's economy through textiles. So, this region is referred as **'Textile Valley of Tamil Nadu'.**

Textile Industry

Silk Textiles

Tamil Nadu occupies fourth position in the country in silk production. Kancheepuram silk is unique in its quality and is known for its traditional value all over the world. Kancheepuram, Arani, Kumbakonam, Salem, Coimbatore, Madurai and Tirunelveli are the important silk-weaving centres in Tamil Nadu. Ramanathapuram has some specialised areas for the manufacturing of synthetic silk clothes.

Leather Industry

Tamil Nadu accounts for 60% of leather tanning processes of India and 38% of all leather footwear, garments and components. Hundreds of leather tanneries are located around Vellore and nearby towns, such as Ranipet, Ambur and Vaniyambadi. The Vellore district is the top exporter of finished leather goods in the country. Central Leather Research Institute (CLRI), a CSIR research laboratory, is located in Chennai.

GI Tag

GI(Geographical Indication)is a name or sign used on products which corresponds to a specific geographical location. It provides rights and protection of holders.

Some important GI Tags of Tamil Nadu are:

Place	Products
Arani	Silk
Kancheepuram	Silk
Coimbatore	Wet Grinder and Coracotton
Thanjavur	Paintings, Art plate, Doll and veenai
Nagercoil	Temple Jewellery
Erode	Turmeric
Salem	Venpattu(salem silk)
Bhavani	Jamakkalam
Madurai	Sungudi
Swamimalai	Bronze Icons
Nachiarkovil	Kuthuvilakku
Pattamadai	Mat
Nilgiri	Orthodox Embroidery
Mahabalipuram	Stone sculpture
Sirumalai	Hill banana
Eathamozhi	Coconut

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Paper Industry

Tamil Nadu Newsprint and Papers Limited (TNPL) is a government of Tamil Nadu enterprise producing newsprint and printing and writing paper at its mill located at Kagithapuram in Karur district. TNPL is one of the most accomplished mills in the world, producing different varieties paper of acceptable quality primarily from bagasse and pulpwood. Other paper mills of the state are found in Pukkathurai of Kancheepuram district, Bhavanisagar, Pallipalayam, Paramathi Vellore, Coimbatore, Udamalaipet, Thoppampatti, Nilakkotai and Cheranmahadevi.

Cement Industry

Cement production and consumption continue to grow despite the general recession in the economy. India is one of the largest cement producers and ranked second in the world with an annual production capacity of 181 million tons. Tamil Nadu Cements Corporation Limited (TANCEM) is one among the major cement producers in Tamil Nadu operating two cement units: one at Ariyalur and another at Alangulam. Asbestos cement sheet plant at Alangulam and stoneware pipe unit at Virudhachalam are the other units of TANCEM. Sankar Cement, Zuari Cement, Ultratech Cement, Madras Cement and Dalmia Cement are the major private cement brands produced in Tamil Nadu.

7.9 Information Technology

According to National Association of Software and Services Companies (NASSCOM), the southern states continue to account for more than half of the country's total export of software. Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh together account for 59.6% of India's total software exports. Tamil Nadu is the second largest software exporter in the country next to Karnataka.

The list of IT parks in Tamil Nadu

Tidel Park, Ascendas, Mahindra world city 4 IT & ITES SEZ TIDEL-II, IT & ITES SEZ TIDEL-III, Coimbatore SEZ - Tidel Park

Special Economic Zones

Special economic zones (SEZs) provide an internationally competitive and hassle-free environment for exports. Units in SEZ manufacture goods and provide a range of services. SEZs are located in Nanguneri, Ennore, Hosur and Perambalur. IT & ITES SEZ named TIDEL-II and TIDEL-III and Bio-Pharmaceuticals SEZ are located in Chennai and Coimbatore SEZ called the TIDEL Park–IV is located in the city.

Manufacturing & Engineering Industry

The manufacturing industry is one of the vibrant sectors of the state economy and contributes significantly to the industrial output. The manufacturing industry broadly covers manufacture of machinery and equipment, motor vehicles, basic metal and alloy industries, metal products and repair of capital goods.

Automobile Industries

Tamil Nadu accounts for about 21% of passenger cars, 33% of commercial vehicles and 35% of automobile components produced in India. Major automobile manufacturers like Ford, Hyundai, HM-Mitsubishi, Ashok Leyland, and TAFE have their manufacturing base in Tamil Nadu.

Handlooms and Powerlooms

The handloom sector in the state is the single largest cottage industry providing livelihood to a large number of rural people and promoting export earnings. These societies mainly produce the cloth required for the scheme of 'Free Supply of Uniforms to School Children and Free Distribution of Sarees and Dhotis Scheme'.

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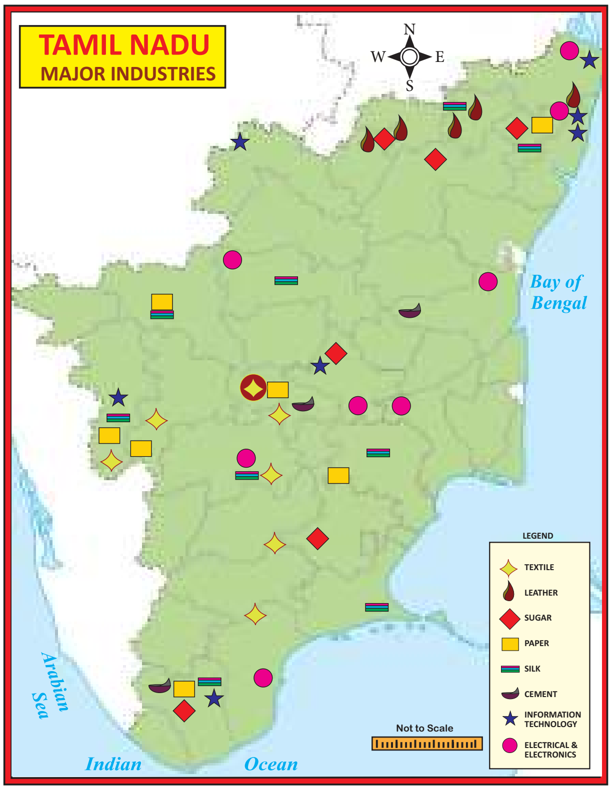
Sugar Industry

Sugar industry in Tamil Nadu is an important agro-based industry. It plays a vital role in the economic development of the state, particularly in rural areas. The sugar industry provides large-scale direct employment to several thousands and indirect employment to several lakhs of farmers and agricultural labourers in the rural areas who are involved in cultivation of sugarcane, harvesting, transporting and other services.



Tourism Industry

Tourism is considered as an industry because of its enormous potential in creating employment for a large number of people. In recent years, the state has emerged as one of the leading tourist destinations for both domestic and foreign tourists. Tourism in Tamil Nadu is promoted by Tamil Nadu Tourism Development Corporation (TTDC). The presence of ancient monuments, pilgrim centres, hill stations, a variety of natural landscapes, long coastline, along with rich culture and heritage make Tamil Nadu the best destination for tourists.

7.10 Population

The term 'population' refers to the number of people living in a defined area. The statistical study of the characteristics of human population is called demography.

Regions of High Population

Coimbatore, Chennai, Tiruvallur, Kancheepuram, Villupuram, Dharmapuri, Salem, Madurai and Tirunelveli are the most populous districts in the state. Agriculture and industrial development are the main causes of high concentration of population of these districts.

Regions of Moderate Population

Tiruvannamalai, Cuddalore, Tiruchirapalli and Thanjavur districts have a population 30–35 lakh. Vellore, Dindugal, Virudhunagar and Thoothukudi districts each have a population of 15–20 lakh. Other than agriculture, small-scale industries and fishing along the coastal areas are the major occupations of people in these districts.

Regions of Sparse Population

The coastal districts Nagapattinam, Tiruvarur, Pudukottai, Ramanathapuram and Sivagangai have a less than 15 lakh. The Nilgiris district has a population of less than 10 lakh population.

Population Density

The state ranks 12th among the Indian states in population density. The national average density of population as per the 2011 Census is 382. Chennai is the densest district with 26,553 persons per sq.km followed by Kanyakumari, Tiruvallur, Kancheepuram, Madurai, Coimbatore, Cuddalore, Thanjavur, Nagapattinam, Salem, Vellore and Tiruchirappalli. These are the regions with high density of population. The least density of population is recorded in the Nilgiris and the other districts have moderate density of population.

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Religion

Hinduism, Christianity and Islam are the major religions in the state. The Hindus constitute the largest of the population, followed by Christians and Muslims. Jainism, Sikhism and Buddhism and people of other religions also presence in the state.

Sex Ratio

The sex ratio represents the number of females per 1000 males.

The highest sex ratio is found in the Nilgiris district followed by Thanjavur district. The lowest sex ratio is reported in Dharmapuri district followed by Salem district.

Literacy Rate

The district of Kanyakumari has reported the highest literacy rate while Dharmapuri district has the lowest rate. A high level of literacy rate is also seen in Chennai, Thoothukudi, the Nilgiris and Kancheepuram districts.

7.11 Transport and Communication

Roadways

The State has a total road length of 167,000 km, In which 60,628km are maintained by state Highways Department. It ranks second in India with a share of over 20% in total road projects under operation in the **Public-Private Partnership (PPP)** model.

DO YOU KNOW?

NH - 44 is the longest national highway in Tamil Nadu which runs from Hosur to Kanniyakumari (627.2 km) Via Dharmapuri-Salem-Karur-Dindigul-Madurai-Tirunelveli.

NH - 785 is the shortest national highway in Tamil Nadu which runs from Madurai to Tuvarankuruchi.

Railways

Tamil Nadu has a well-developed rail network as part of Southern Railway, headquartered at Chennai. The present Southern Railway network extends over a large area of India's southern peninsula, covering Tamil Nadu, Kerala, Puducherry, minor portions of Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh. Chennai has a well-established suburban railway network, a **Mass Rapid Transport system(MRTS)** and is currently developing a Metro system, with its first underground stretch in operation since May 2017.

Airways

Tamil Nadu has four major international airports. Chennai International Airport is currently the third largest airport in India after Mumbai and Delhi. Other international airports in Tamil Nadu include Coimbatore, Madurai and Tiruchirapalli airports. It also has domestic airports at Tuticorin and Salem.

Waterways

Tamil Nadu has three major ports. They are in Chennai, Ennore and Tuticorin. It has an intermediate port at Nagapattinam and 15 minor ports. All the minor ports are managed by the Tamil Nadu Maritime Board, Chennai Port. This is an artificial harbour and the second principal port in the country for handling containers.

7.12 Communication

Communication is derived from the Latin word communicare, meaning 'to share'. The act of conveying or exchanging information is called means of communication. They are mass communication and personal communication.

Postal Districts and Headquarters in Tamil Nadu

Zone /districts	Head quarters
Chennai	Chennai
Western	Coimbatore
Central	Thiruchirapalli
Southern	Madurai

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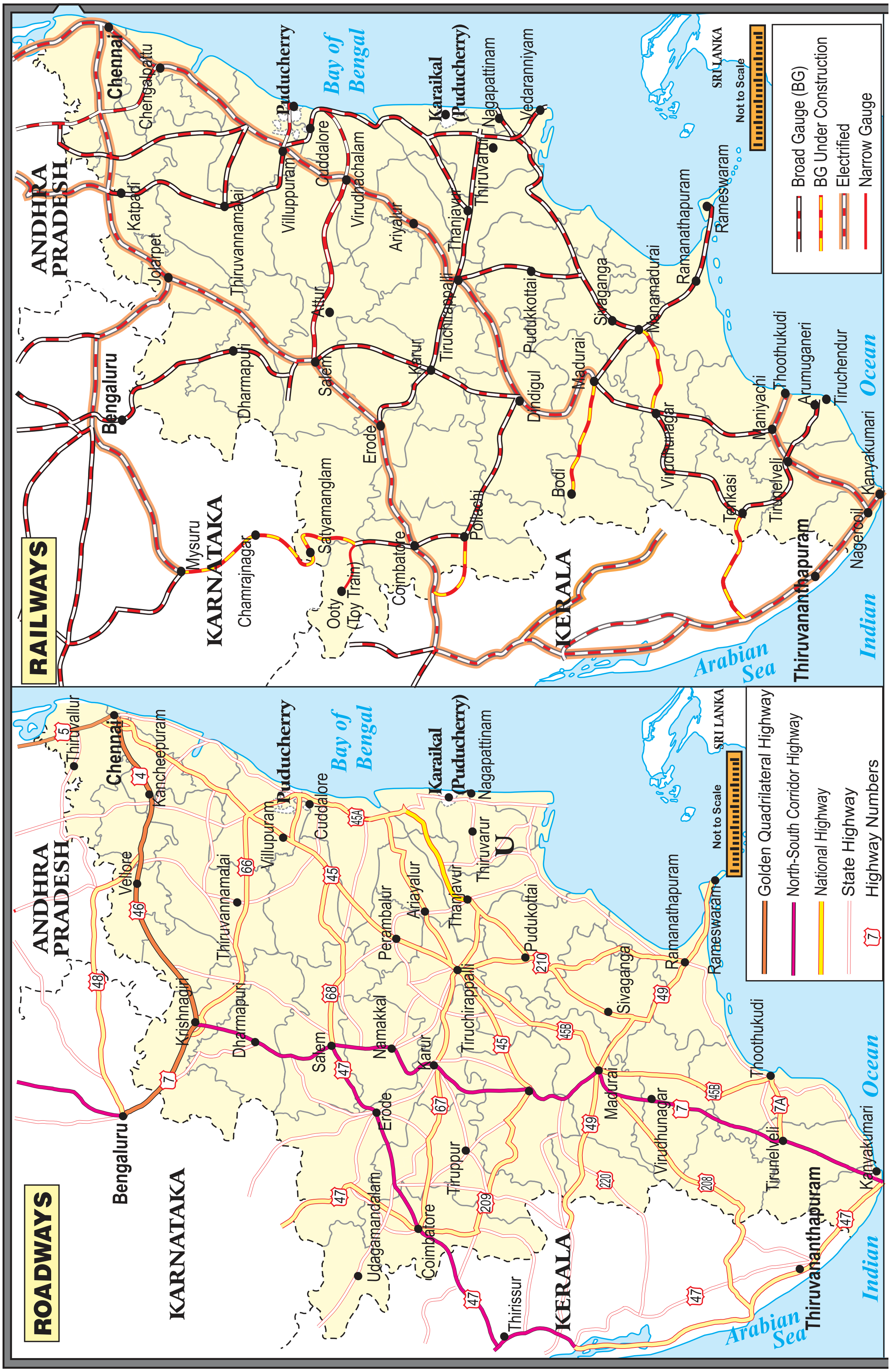
TAMILNADU – TRANSPORT



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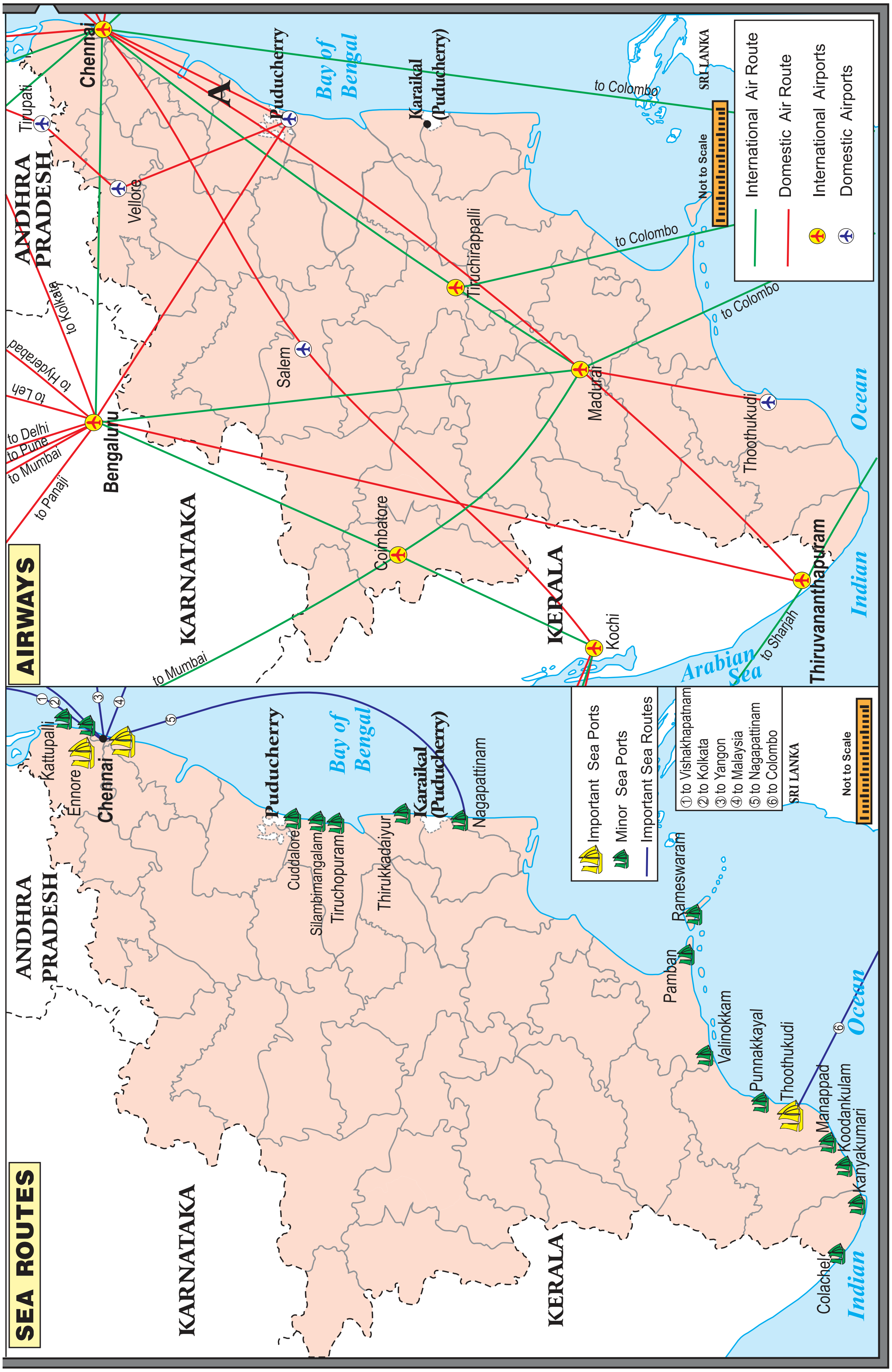
TAMILNADU – TRANSPORT



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7.13 Trade

Export and import are the two components of trade. Export means goods and services sold for foreign currency. Tamil Nadu contributes 12.2% to the country's exports. Import refers to goods and services are brought from overseas producers. Tamil Nadu imports many goods from outside. The difference between the values of export and import is called the balance of trade.

7.14 Imports of Tamil Nadu

Machineries like transport equipment, machine tools, non-electrical machinery, electrical machinery, pharmaceutical products, petroleum, fertilizers and newsprint are its major imports. The state contributes 10.94% to the country's trade through major ports.

Major Exports of Tamil Nadu	
(i) Agricultural Products	tobacco, cereals, cotton, sugarcane, groundnut, spices and vegetables.
(ii) Leather Products	wallets, purses, pouches, handbags, belts, footwear and gloves
(iii) Gems and Jewellery	pearls, precious stones, gold jewellery, decorations and antiques
(iv) Chemicals and related products	paper, chemicals, rubber and glass.

The above discussion shows that Tamil Nadu is an important state of India in terms of size, population, resources and economic development. People in the state are well secured. The new schemes introduced by the state government periodically have enabled notable progress in various fields.

SUMMARY

- Human Geography is the branch of geography dealing with how human activity affects or is influenced by the nature.
- Tropical crops like paddy, millets, pluses, oilseeds and plantation crops of tea, coffee, cashew, rubber etc are the major crops of Tamil Nadu.

EXERCISE

S2U8X

I Choose the correct answer

1. The delta which is known as Granary of South India is

   a) Cauvery delta b) Mahanadi delta
   c) Godavari delta d) Krishna delta

2. Second staple food of the people of Tamil Nadu is

   a) Pulses b) Millets
   c) Oilseeds d) Rice

3. A major hydro-electric power project of Tamil Nadu is

   a) Mettur b) Papansam
   c) Sathanur d) Thungabahdra

[redacted]

4. Number of major and minor ports in Tamil Nadu are
   a) 3and15 b) 4 and15
   c) 3 and16 d) 4 and15

II Fill in the blanks

1. Agriculture of Tamil Nadu constitutes ____________ % of its economy.
2. Sathanur dam is constructed across the river ____________.
3. ____________ is the third largest airport in India after Mumbai and Delhi.
4. The difference between the value of exports and imports is called ____________.

III Match the following

1.	Bauxite	–	Salem
2.	Gypsum	–	Servaroy hills
3.	Iron ore	–	Coimbatore
4.	Limestone	–	Tiruchirapalli

IV Questions 1-2 are assertion and reasoning type

1. **Assertion (A):** Coimbatore, Tiruppur, Erode, Karur and Salem region is called as The Textile Valley of Tamil Nadu.

   Reason (R): They contribute a major share to the states economy through textiles.

   (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) explains (A)
   (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but, (R) does not explain (A)
   (c) (A) is true but (R) is false
   (d) (A) is false but (R) is true

2. **Assertion (A):** The Nilgiris is the least populated district of Tamil Nadu

   Reason (R): It is located in the western most part of Tamil Nadu.

   (a) Both (A) and (R) are true and (R) explains (A)
   (b) Both (A) and (R) are true but, (R) does not explain (A)
   (c) (A) is true but (R) is false
   (d) (A) is false but (R) is false

V Answer the following in brief

1. What are the cropping seasons of Tamil Nadu
2. Why is Coimbatore called the Manchester of South India?
3. Name the important multipurpose projects of Tamil Nadu.
4. What is MRTS?
5. List out the air ports and sea ports of Tamil Nadu.

VI Distinguish between the following

1. Food crops and non- food crops
2. Surface water and ground water

VII Give reasons for the following

1. Farmers switch over from inorganic to organic farming.
2. Cities are densely populated than the villages.

VIII Answer the following in a paragraph

1. Write about the plantation farming of Tamil Nadu.
2. Give an account on water resources of Tamil Nadu.
3. Bring out the mineral distribution in Tamil Nadu.
4. Explain the different modes of transport available in Tamil Nadu.

IX Map exercise

1. Mark the areas of major crops, minerals, dams, air ports and sea ports.

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A-Z GLOSSARY

Back waters: The part of a river which are stagnant and do not reach the sea as they are pushed by the current.

Distributary: A branch or outlet which leaves a main river and does not rejoin it, carrying its water to the sea or a lake.

Doab: A land between the two converging rivers.

Estuary: Mouth of a river where it enters the sea through a single channel with a hollow.

Perennial Rivers: The rivers which flow throughout the year and have permanent source of water.

Pass: A narrow gap through the mountains providing a route or passage way.

Peninsula: The land area covered with ocean on three sides.

Subcontinent: A large area of a continent that stands distinct from the rest of the continent and possesses almost all the characteristics of a continent.

Standard Time: The local time of central meridian of ones country.

Tributary: A river or stream which contributes its water to main river.

Climate: The weather conditions prevailing in an area in general or over a long period.

Meteorology: The branch of science concerned with the processes and phenomena of the atmosphere, especially as a means of forecasting the weather.

Season: Each of the four divisions of the year (spring, summer, autumn, and winter) marked by particular weather patterns and daylight hou.

Weather: The state of the atmosphere at a particular place and time as regards heat, cloudiness, dryness, sunshine, wind, rain, etc.

Wildlife: Wild animals collectively; the native fauna (and sometimes flora) of a region.

Soil: Soil is the uppermost layer of the land surface composed of minerals, organic matter, living organisms and water

Khadar: Newer alluvium soil found in valley flooded almost every year

Bhangar: Older alluvium soil found in30 mts above flood level

Soil erosion: Removal of top soil

Soil conservation: Prevention of soil from erosion and protecting its fertility.

Irrigation: Watering of plants through artificial means.

Multipurpose projects: Construction of dams across rivers aimed at many purposes

Agriculture: It is the process of producing food, feed, fibre and many other desired products by the cultivation of certain plants and the raising of domesticated plants

Biogas: The production of methane and carbon- di- oxide from plants and animal wastes.

Fossil fuel: Any naturally occurring carbon or hydrocarbon coal, oil and natural gas.

Ore: It is a deposit in the earth crust with one or more value minerals

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Solar power: Heat radiation from the sun converted into electricity.

Thermal power station: An electricity generating plants which burns coal or oil.

Barter: A direct exchange of goods between any two parties.No money is involved in the trade.

Foreign exchange: The mechanism or process by which payments between any two places operating under different national currency systems are effected without passing of actual money or gold, etc.

Harbour: An extensive stretch of deep water near the seashore where vessels can anchor securely. It is used for exports and imports of goods.

Port: The commercial part of a harbour with the facility of loading and unloading of goods and space for the storage of cargo.

Bay: A broad inlet of the sea where the land curves inwards

Beach: A pebbly or sandy shore, especially by the sea between high- and low-water marks

Biogas: The production of methane and carbon- di- oxide from plants and animal wastes

Commercial crops: Crops which are cultivated to be sold to gain profit from sale.

Cyclone: A cyclone is a large scale air mass that rotates around a strong centre of low atmospheric pressure.

Dams: A barrier constructed to hold back water and raise its level, forming a reservoir used to generate electricity, supply water and other uses.

Delta: A triangular shaped alluvial tract formed at the mouth of a river.

Density of population: The average number of inhabitants living per sq km area

Drought: It is a natural disaster of below average precipitation in a given region resulting water shortage.

Drowning: death caused by being underwater and not being able to breath.

Endemism: The ecological state of a species being unique to a defined geographic location, such as an island, nation

Exports: Goods dispatched from one country to another.

Flood: A large amount of water that has spread from a river

Imports: Goods bought into a country from another country.

Land slide: sudden fall of mass of the rocks etc down side of the mountain

Literates: The people with the ability to read and write.

Leaching: It is a process in rainy seasons which all the soluble minerals are washed away by runoff water so the soil is infertile

Latitude: The imaginary parallel lines which run east to west on the globe.

Longitude: The imaginary vertical lines which run north to south on the globe.

Mangroves: Salt tolerant evergreen forest ecosystem found mainly in tropical and sub-tropical coastal and/or inter-tidal regions.

Manchester: An industrial city and metropolitan district in north-western England/items for the home made of cotton, linen, etc., such as sheets, pillowcases, or tablecloths.

Meteorology: The science of weather.

Mixed farming: It is a type of farming which involves both the growing of crops and the raising of livestock simultaneously in a land holding.

Monsoon: Season

Natural resources: Materials or substances occur in nature and are used for economic gain

Open Forest: Lands with forest cover having a canopy density between 10 to 40 percent.

Plantation agriculture: Well organized and managed farming with a single crop on a large scale. It is a capital intensive farming. Tea, coffee and rubber are the major plantation crops.

Plateau: An extensive elevated area of relatively a flat land.

Population: All the people living in a particular country, area, or place

Population census: Official enumeration of population along with economic and social attributes of a region at a specified interval.

Protected Forest(PF): An area notified under the provisions of the Indian Forest Act or other State Forest Acts, having limited degree of protection. In protected forest all activities are permitted unless prohibited.

Regions: An area, especially part of a country or the world having definable characteristics but not always fixed boundaries.

Reserved Forest (RF): An area constituted under the provisions of the Indian Forest Act or other State Forest Acts, having full degree of protection. In Reserved forests all activities are prohibited unless permitted.

Reservoirs: A large natural or artificial lake used as a source of water supply.

Sedimentary rock: A rock which has been formed by the consolidation of sediments.

Sex ratio: The number of females per 1000 males.

Stampede: a situation in which a large number of animals or people running in the same direction in an uncontrolled way causing injuries and deaths

Strait: A narrow passage of water connecting two seas or two other large areas of water.

Subsistence intenensive farming: It is a type of farming in which crops grown are consumed by the family with little surplus to sell.

Unclassed Forest: An area recorded as forest but not included in reserved or protected forest category.

UNESCO World Heritage Site: Representing the main ecosystem of the planet in which genetic resisources would be protected, and where research on the ecosystem as well as monitoring and training work could be carried.

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CIVICS

Unit - 1

Indian Constitution

Learning Objectives

- To know about the making of Indian Constitution
- To know the Salient features of Indian Constitution
- To understand the Fundamental Rights and Duties
- To know the Directive Principles of State Policy
- To understand the Centre-State relations and the Emergency Provisions

6PQZ5

Introduction

The Constitution is the fundamental law of a country which reflects the fundamental principles on which the government of that country is based. It is the vehicle of a Nation's progress. The concept of constitution was first originated in U.S.A.

1.1 The Need for a Constitution

All Democratic countries have a constitution that governs them. A constitution puts down certain principles that form the basis of any kind of a state that we as citizens, desire to live in. A constitution tells us the fundamental nature of our society.

1.2 Making of Indian Constitution

The Constitution of India was framed by a Constituent Assembly setup under the Cabinet Mission Plan, 1946. The Assembly consisted of 389 members representing Provinces (292), States (93), the Chief Commissioner's provinces (3) and Baluchistan (1). The Assembly held its first meeting on December 9, 1946. Dr. Sachchidananda Sinha, the oldest member, was elected as the temporary President of the Assembly. While the work was in progress, Dr. Sachchidananda Sinha died. Dr. Rajendra Prasad was elected as the President of the Assembly. Similarly, both H.C. Mukherjee and V.T. Krishnamachari were elected as the Vice-Presidents of the Assembly. The Assembly met for 11 sessions along with 166 days of meetings. During the discussion, 2473 amendments were presented. Some of them were accepted. The Assembly worked through various committees and the draft of the Constitution was prepared by the Drafting Committee under the chairmanship of Dr. B.R. Ambedkar. He is recognised as the 'Father of the Constitution of India'.

Dr. B.R. Ambedkar

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After the draft had been discussed by the people, the press, provincial assemblies and others, the Constitution was finally adopted on November 26, 1949, contained a Preamble, 22 parts, 395 Articles and 8 Schedules. The drafted Constitution came into force on 26th January, 1950. This day is known as the Republic Day. It is being observed every year.

DO YOU KNOW?

Prem Behari Narain Raizada was the calligrapher of the Indian Constitution. The original constitution was handwritten by him in a flowing italic style.

1.3 Salient features of Indian Constitution

- It is the lengthiest of all the written constitutions of the world.
- It has borrowed most of its provisions from the constitutions of various countries.
- It is partly rigid and partly flexible.
- It establishes a federal system of government.
- It makes India as a secular state.
- It provides an independent judiciary.
- It introduces Universal Adult Franchise and accords the right to vote to all citizens above 18 years of age without any discrimination.

1.4 Preamble

The term 'preamble' refers to the introduction or preface to the Constitution. It consists of the ideals, objectives and basic principles of the Constitution. It has great value and has been described as the 'key to the Constitution'.

The Preamble to the Indian Constitution is based on the 'Objective Resolution', drafted by Jawaharlal Nehru, which was adopted by the Constituent Assembly on January 22, 1947. It has been amended once by the 42nd Constitutional Amendment Act of 1976, which added three new words - socialist, secular and integrity. The Preamble begins with the phrase 'We, the People of India'. Thus, we can say that the people of India are the source of our Constitution. The Preamble of our Constitution states that India is a **Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic**. Its aim is to secure to all Indian citizens Social, economic and political justice.

DO YOU KNOW?

Liberty, Equality and Fraternity were the important slogans during the French Revolution in 1789. They are given importance in the Preamble of our Constitution.

1.5 Citizenship

The word 'Citizen' is derived from the Latin term 'Civis'. It means resident of a City State. The Constitution of India provides for a single and uniform citizenship for the whole of India. Articles 5 to 11 under part II of the Constitution deals with the citizenship.

Citizenship Act (1955)

The Citizenship Act of 1955 provides for acquisition and loss of citizenship after the commencement of the Constitution. This Act has been amended so far nine times.

Acquisition of Citizenship

According to the Citizenship Act, 1955, the citizenship could be acquired through any of the following methods.

1. By Birth: All persons born in India on or after January 26, 1950 are treated as citizens by birth.

2. By Descent: A person born outside India on or after January 26, 1950 shall be a citizen of India by descent, if his father is a citizen of India at the time of his birth.

3. By Registration: A person can acquire citizenship of India by registration with appropriate authority.

4. By Naturalisation: A foreigners can acquire Indian citizenship, on application for naturalization to the Government of India.

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5. By Incorporation of Territory: In the event of a certain territory being added to the territory of India, the Government of India shall specify the persons of that territory who shall be citizen of India.

Loss of Citizenship

The Citizenship Act of 1955 prescribes three ways of losing citizenship whether acquired under the Act or prior to it under the Constitution, viz, renunciation, termination and deprivation.

1. It can be voluntarily renounced by a citizen.
2. It can be terminated if a person acquires the citizenship of some other country.
3. The central government can deprive a naturalized citizen, if it satisfied that the citizenship was acquired by fraud, false representation or concealment of material facts or indulges in trade with enemy countries or if the person has been sentenced to imprisonment for a period of 2 years.

1.6 Fundamental Rights

The Fundamental Rights are enshrined in Part III of the Constitution from Articles 12 to 35. In this regard, the framers of the Constitution derived inspiration from the Constitution of USA. Originally, the Constitution provided for seven Fundamental Rights. At present, there are only six Fundamental Rights. Part III of the Constitution is rightly described as the Magna Carta of India. While Fundamental Rights are available to all persons, certain Fundamental Rights are available only to Indian Citizens.

Right to constitutional remedies (Articles - 32)

A writ is an order or command issued by a court in writing under its seal. It is in the nature of a command or prohibition from performing certain acts that are specified in the orders of the court. Both the Supreme Court and the High Courts are empowered to issue five kinds of writs. That is why the Supreme Court is called the "Guardian of the Constitution". According to Dr. Ambedkar, Article 32 is "the heart and soul of the Constitution".

(a) **Habeas Corpus:**

Safeguards people from illegal arrests.

(b) **Mandamus:**

It protects the petitioner who requires legal help to get his work done by respective public authorities.

(c) **Prohibition:**

It prohibits a subordinate court from acting beyond its jurisdiction.

(d) **Certiorari:**

It quashes an order issued by a subordinate court by overstepping its jurisdiction.

(e) **Quo Warranto:**

It prevents usurpation of public office through illegal manner.

Suspension of Fundamental Rights

When the President makes a Proclamation of Emergency under Article 352, the freedoms guaranteed under Article 19 are automatically suspended. The President can suspend other fundamental rights through specific orders. These orders must be approved by the Parliament.

Differences between Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles of State Policy

Fundamental Rights	Directive Principles of State Policy
It was derived from the Constitution of the USA.	It was drawn on the model of the Constitution of Ireland.
Even the Government cannot take away or abridge these rights.	These are mere instructions to the Government.
These are enforceable by a court of law.	These are not enforceable in any court.
These have legal sanctions.	These have moral and political sanctions.
These rights strengthen political democracy in the country.	The implementation of these principles ensures social and economic democracy.

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I. RIGHT TO EQUALITY

Art. 14 - Equality before law.
Art. 15 - Prohibition of discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth.
Art. 16 - Equality of opportunity in matters of public employment.
Art. 17 - Abolition of Untouchability.
Art. 18 - Abolition of titles except military and academic.

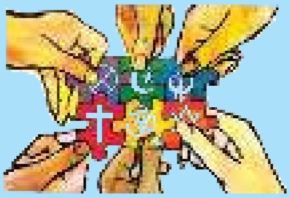
II. RIGHT TO FREEDOM

Art. 19 - Freedom of speech and expression, assembly, association, movement, residence and profession.
Art. 20 - Protection in respect of conviction for offences.
Art. 21 - Protection of life and personal liberty.
Art. 21A - Right to elementary education.
Art. 22 - Protection against arrest and detention in certain cases.

III. RIGHT AGAINST EXPLOITATION

Art. 23 - Prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour.
Art. 24 - Prohibition of employment of children in factories, etc.

IV. RIGHT TO RELIGION



Art. 25 - Freedom of conscience and free profession, practice and propagation of religion.
Art. 26 - Freedom to manage religious affairs.
Art. 27 - Freedom from payment of taxes for promotion of any religion.
Art. 28 - Freedom from attending religious instruction or worship in certain educational institutions.

V. CULTURAL & EDUCATIONAL RIGHTS

Art. 29 - Protection of language, script and culture of minorities.
Art. 30 - Right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions.

VI. RIGHT TO CONSTITUTIONAL REMEDIES

Art. 32 - It allows individuals to seek redressal for the violation of their fundamental rights.

DO YOU KNOW?

Right to Property (Art. 31) was deleted from the list of Fundamental Rights by the 44th Amendment Act, 1978. It is made a legal right under Article 300-A in Part XII of the Constitution.

Violation of which Fundamental right is associated with the theme depicted in the stamps?

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1.7 Directive Principles of State Policy

The Directive Principles of State Policy are enumerated in Part IV of the Constitution from Articles 36 to 51. The Constitution does not contain any classification of Directive Principles. However, on the basis of their content and direction, they can be classified into three broad categories, viz, socialistic, Gandhian and liberal-intellectual. These principles are not enforceable by the courts.

But they are fundamental for the governance of the country. They aim at promoting the Social Welfare of the people. Dr. B.R. Ambedkar described these principles as 'novel features' of the Indian Constitution.

The 86th Amendment Act of 2002 changed the subject -matter of Article 45 and made elementary education a fundamental right under Article 21 A. The amended directive requires the State to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years.

1.8 Fundamental Duties

The Fundamental Duties in the Indian Constitution are inspired by the Constitution of former USSR (Russia). In 1976, the Congress party set up the Sardar Swaran Singh Committee to make recommendations on fundamental duties. The 42nd Amendment Act of 1976 added some responsibilities of citizens to our Constitution called the Fundamental Duties. This amendment added a new part, namely, Part IVA to the Constitution. This new part consists of only one Article that is Article 51A which for the first time specified a code of eleven fundamental duties of the citizens.

List of Fundamental Duties

(a) To abide by the constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem.

(b) To cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired the national struggle for freedom

(c) To uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India

(d) To defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so

(e) To promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood among all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional or sectional diversities; to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women

(f) To value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture

(g) To protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers and wildlife, and to have compassion for living creatures

(h) To develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform

(i) To safeguard public property and to abjure violence

(j) To strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity, so that the nation constantly rises to higher levels of endeavour and achievement

(k) To provide opportunities for education to his child or ward between the age of six and fourteen years. (The 86th Constitutional Amendment Act, 2002 has also introduced the 11th Fundamental Duty under 51A(k) under which all citizens of India or parents shall provide opportunities for education to their children between age of 6 and 14 years)

1.9 Centre-State Relations

Legislative relations

The Union Parliament has the power to legislate for the whole or any part of the territory of India, which includes not only the

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States but also the Union Territories or any other area for the time being, included in the territory of India. The Seventh Schedule of the Constitution embodies three lists namely, the Union List, State List and Concurrent List consisting of 97, 66 and 47 items respectively. The Parliament enjoys the exclusive power to legislate on subjects enumerated in the Union List. The State Legislature has exclusive right to legislate on the State List. Both Parliament and State Legislatures have power to legislate on subjects contained in the Concurrent. List. But in case of conflict between the law of the State and the Union on a subject in the Concurrent List, the law of Parliament prevails.

DO YOU KNOW?

The Union List, State List and Concurrent List consisting at present 100, 61 and 52 items respectively. The 42nd Amendment Act of 1976 transferred five subjects to Concurrent List from State List, that is, education, forests, weights and measures, protection of wild animals and birds, and administration of justice; constitution and organisation of all courts excepts the Supreme Court and the high courts.

Administrative relations

The Administrative power of a State extends only to its own territory and with respect to which it has legislative competence, whereas the Union has exclusive executive power over: (a) the matters with respect to which Parliament has exclusive power to make laws and (b) the exercise of its powers conferred by any treaty or agreement.

Financial relations

Article 268-293 in Part XII deal with the Financial relations between centre and the states. The Centre and States are empowered by the Constitution to impose various kinds of taxes. And certain taxes are imposed and collected by the centre and divided between centre and states based on the recommendation of the Finance Commission appointed by the President under Article 280 of the Constitution.

Late Prime Minister Indira Gandhi appointed the Sarkaria Commission in 1983 to make an enquiry into the Centre-State relations. The Central government has implemented 180 (out of 247) recommendations of the Commission.

DO YOU KNOW?

In 1969, the Tamil Nadu Government appointed a three-member committee under the chairmanship of Dr. P V Rajamannar to examine the entire question of Centre-state relations.

1.10 Official Language

Part XVII of the Constitution deals with the official language in Articles 343 to 351. Initially, the Constitution recognised 14 regional languages which were included in the Eighth Schedule. At present, 22 languages are recognised.

Activity

List out the recognised languages in the Eighth Schedule of the Constitution?

DO YOU KNOW?

In 2004, the Government of India decided to create new category of languages called as "classical languages". So far, the six languages are granted the classical language status namely Tamil (2004), Sanskrit (2005), Telugu (2008), Kannada (2008), Malayalam (2013) and Odia (2014).

1.11 Emergency Provisions

National Emergency (Article 352)

The President under Article 352 can declare emergency if he is satisfied that India's security is threatened due to war, external aggression or armed rebellion, or if there is an imminent danger or threat. When a national emergency is declared on the ground of war or external

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aggression it is known as external emergency. On the other hand, when it is declared on the ground of armed rebellion it is known as internal emergency. This type of emergency has been declared three times so far: in 1962, 1971 and 1975.

State emergency (Article 356)

Under Article 356, the President can declare an emergency in a state if the Governor reports that a situation has arisen under which the government of a State cannot be carried on in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution. The continuance of such an emergency beyond one year is possible only if emergency under Art. 352 are in operation or the Election Commission certifies that there are difficulties in holding Assembly elections. Maximum duration of the emergency can be three years. The State is governed by the Governor on behalf of the President. For the first time, the President's Rule was imposed in Punjab in 1951.

Financial emergency (Article 360)

Article 360 authorises the President to declare financial emergency if he is satisfied that the financial stability or credit of India or of any of its parts is in danger. In this type of emergency, salaries and allowances of any class of persons serving State or Union, including judges of the Supreme Court and High Court can be reduced by an order of the President. This type of emergency has not been declared in India so far.

1.12 Amendment of the Constitution

The term amendment denotes change, improvement and modification. Article 368 of the Constitution in Part XX, deals with the powers of Parliament to amend the Constitution and its procedure.

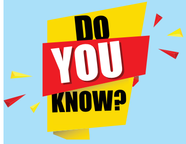
Procedure of Amendment

An amendment of this Constitution may be initiated only by the introduction of a Bill for the purpose in either House of Parliament, and when the Bill is passed in each House by a majority of the total membership of that House and by a majority of not less than two-thirds of the members of that House present and voting, it shall be presented to the President who shall give his assent to the Bill and thereupon the Constitution shall stand amended in accordance with the terms of the Bill. The constitution amendment can be brought about only by the Parliament. State legislatures cannot initiate for any amendment to the Constitution.

Types of Amendments

Article 368 provides for three ways of amendments.

1. Amendment by simple majority of the Parliament
2. Amendment by special majority of the Parliament
3. Amendment by special majority of the Parliament and the ratification of half of the state legislatures.



42nd amendment of the Constitution is known as the mini Constitution.

1.13 Constitutional Reform Commissions

The National Commission to Review the Working of the Constitution was set up by a resolution of the Government of India in 2000 headed by M.N.Venkatachaliah. In April 2007, a three member commission headed by the former Chief Justice of India M.M.Punchchi was set up by the then Government to take a fresh look at relative roles and responsibilities of various levels of Government and their inter-relations.

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SUMMARY

- The Constitution of India was framed by a Constituent Assembly set up under the Cabinet Mission Plan, 1946.
- The Preamble of our Constitution states that India is a **Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic**.
- The word 'Citizen' is derived from the Latin term 'Civis'. It means resident of a City State.
- According to Dr. Ambedkar, Article 32 is "the heart and soul of the whole Constitution".
- In 2004, the Government of India decided to create new category of languages called as "classical languages".

A-Z GLOSSARY

Preamble	the introduction to the constitution of India	முகவுரை
Secular state	A state which protects all religions equally	சமயச் சார்பற்ற அரசு
Discrimination	unfair treatesment of a person or group	பாகுபாடு
Writ	written command of court	நீதிப்பேராணை
Sovereignty	supreme power or authority	இறையாண்மை
Heritage	something handed down from one's ancestors	பாரம்பரியம்
Autonomy	independence in one's thoughts or actions	தன்னாட்சி
Proclamation	an announcement	பிரகடனம்

EVALUATION

QUZT3

I Choose the Correct Answer

1. Which of the following sequences in right regarding the Preamble?
   (a) Republic, democratic, secular, socialist, sovereign
   (b) Sovereign, socialist, secular, republic, democratic
   (c) Sovereign, republic, secular, socialist, democratic
   (d) Sovereign, socialist, secular, democratic, republic
2. How many times has the Preamble to the Constitution of India amended?
   (a) Once (b) Twice (c) Thrice (d) Never
3. A foreigner can acquire Indian citizenship through
   (a) Descent (b) Registration
   (c) Naturalisation (d) All of the above
4. Find the odd one out.
   (a) Right to Equality
   (b) Right against Exploitation
   (c) Right to Property
   (d)Cultural and Educational Rights
5. One of the following is not an instance of an exercise of a fundamental right?
   (a) Workers from Karnataka go to Kerala to work on the farms
   (b) Christian missions set up a chain of missionary schools
   (c) Men and Women government employees got the same salary.
   (d) Parents property is inherited by their children
6. Which one of the following rights was described by Dr. B.R. Ambedkar as the heart and soul of the Constitution?
   (a) Right to freedom of religion
   (b) Right to equality

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(c) Right to Constitutional remedies

(d) Right to property

7. How can the Fundamental Rights be suspended?

(a) If the Supreme Court so desires

(b) If the Prime Minister orders to this effect

(c) If the President orders it during the national emergency

(d) All of the above

8. We borrowed the Fundamental Duties from the

(a) American Constitution

(b) Canadian Constitution

(c) Russian Constitution

(d) Irish Constitution

9. Under which Article financial emergency can be proclaimed?

(a) Article 352 (b) Article 356

(c) Article 360 (d) Article 368

10. Which of the following committees/ commissions made recommendations about the Centre-State Relations?

1. Sarkaria Commission

2. Rajamannar Committee

3. M.N.Venkatachaliah Commission

Select the correct answer from the codes given below

(a) 1, 2 & 3 (b) 1 & 2

(c) 1 & 3 (d) 2 & 3

II Fill in the Blanks

1. The concept of constitution first originated in _________.
2. _________was elected as the temporary President of the Constituent Assembly.
3. The Constitution of India was adopted on_________.
4. _________ writs are mentioned in Article 32.
5. Fundamental duties have been given to the citizen of India under Article_________.

III Match the Following

1.	Citizenship Act	- Jawaharlal Nehru
2.	The Preamble	- 42nd Amendment
3.	The mini Constitution	- 1955
4.	Classical language	- 1962
5.	National Emergency	- Tamil

IV Give short Answers

1. What is a Constitution?
2. What is meant by citizenship?
3. List out the fundamental rights guranteed by Indian Constitution.
4. What is a Writ?
5. List out the three heads of the relations between the Centre and the States.
6. What are the classical languages in India?
7. What is national emergency?

V Answer in Detail

1. Explain the salient features of the Constitution of India.
2. Point out the Fundamental Rights.
3. Write briefly on the Right to Constitutional Remedies.
4. Mention the differences between Fundamental Rights and Directive Principles of State Policy.

VI Project and activity

1. Collect information about the various members of the Constituent Assembly.
2. Collect the pictures of the Members of the Drafting Committee.

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Unit - 2

Central Government

Learning Objectives

- To know the powers of the President and Vice President
- To Know the about the Prime Minister and Council of Ministers
- To understand the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha
- To know about Supreme Court

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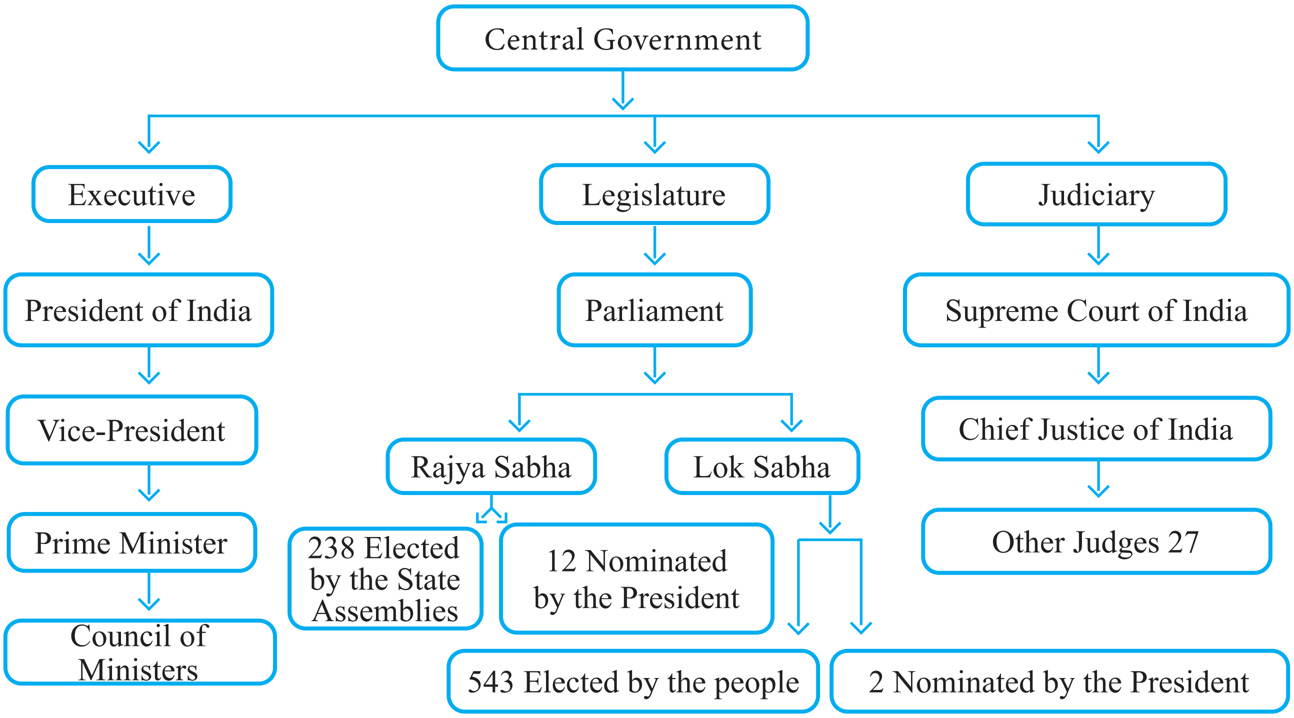
Introduction

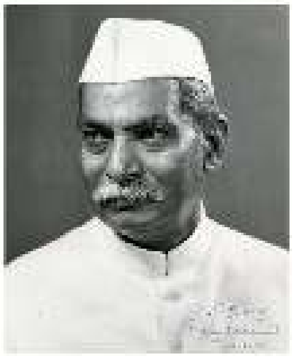
The Central Government is the supreme government in our country. The head quarter of the Central Government is at New Delhi. Articles 52 to 78 in part V of Indian Constitution deals with the Union Executive. The makers of the Indian constitution, by giving due recognition to the vastness and plural character of our nation, have provided a federal arrangement for her governance. The Central Government consists of three organs, namely, Union Executive, Legislature and Judiciary. The Union Executive consists of the President of India, the Vice-President, and the Council of Ministers headed by the Prime Minister, and the Attorney General of India. The Legislature is known as the Parliament.



It consists of two houses, namely the Rajya Sabha and the Lok Sabha. The Union Judiciary consists of the Supreme Court of India.

2.1 The President of India

The President is the nominal executive authority. The chief executive of the Indian union is the President. He is designated as the First citizen of India. He is the supreme commander of the armed forces.



DR. RAJENDRA PRASAD
(First President of India)

The President is also the Constitutional head of the Union Executive. According to Article 53 of the constitution, the executive power of the Union shall be vested in the President which shall be exercised by him directly or through officers subordinate to him in accordance with Constitution.

Qualification for the election as President

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He must have completed the age of 35years.
- He must not hold any office of profit under the Union, State or local Government.
- He should have the other qualifications required to become a member of the Lok Sabha.
- His or her name should be proposed by at least 50 electors and seconded by another 50 electors of the Electoral College which elects the President.

The President cannot be a Member of Parliament or of a State Legislature; if he is a member of any legislature, his seat will be deemed to have been vacated on the date he / she assumes the office of President.

DO YOU KNOW?

It is a well known fact that the President of India resides at Rashtrapati Bhavan in New Delhi. The residence and the office of the President are located in the same building. However he has two other office cum residences where he conducts office at least once a year. They are 'The Retreat Building' at Shimla and the 'Rashtrapati Nilayam' at Hyderabad. These locations one in North and other one is South symbolise the unity of the country and unity of the diverse culture of the people.

Election of the President

The President is elected by an electoral college in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of single transferable vote. The Electoral College consists of the elected members of both houses of Parliament and the elected members of the states and elected members of National Capital Territory of Delhi and Puducherry. Once elected as the President has to take an oath of office before the Chief Justice of India. The President is elected for a term of five years and can be re-elected.

Powers of the President

Executive Powers

Article 77 requires that every executive action of the Union shall be taken in the name of the President.

He appoints the Prime Minister and the other members of the Council of Ministers, distributing portfolios to them on the advice of the Prime Minister. He is responsible for making a wide variety of appointments. These include the appointment of Governors of States, the Chief Justice and other Judges of the Supreme Court and high Courts, the Attorney General, the Comptroller and Auditor General, the Chief Election Commissioner and other Election Commissioners, the Chairman and other Members of the Union Public Service Commission, Ambassadors and High Commissioners to other countries.

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Legislative Powers

He inaugurates the session of the Parliament by addressing it after the general election and also at the beginning of the first session each year. This address is essentially identical in nature to a Speech from the Throne.The President summons Parliament at least twice in a year.

He may send messages to either House of the Parliament with respect to a bill pending in the House. All bills passed by the Parliament become "Laws of Acts" only after getting assent of the President. Money bills cannot be introduced in the Parliament without his approval. President terminates the sessions of both or any of the Houses of Parliament. He can even dissolve the Lok Sabha before the expiry of the term of the House.

He nominates 12 persons who are eminent in literature, science, sports, art and social service to the Rajya Sabha. He can also nominate two persons belonging to Anglo-Indian Community to the Lok Sabha, if in his opinion, that community is inadequately represented in the House.

Financial Power

Annual Budget of the Central Government is presented before the Lok Sabha by the Union Finance Minister only with the permission of the President. The Constitution of India places the Contingency Fund of India is at the disposal of the President. No demand for a grant can be made except on his recommendation. He can make advances out of the contingency fund of India to meet any unexpected expenditure. He constitutes a finance commission after every five years.

Judicial Powers

Article 72 confers on the President power to grant pardons, reprieves, respites or remissions of punishment, or to commute the sentence of any person convicted of an offence.

Military Powers

Article 53(2) lays down that "the supreme command of the Defence Force of the Union shall be vested in the President and the exercise thereof shall be regulated by law".

Diplomatic Powers

The President appoints Indian diplomats to other countries and receives foreign diplomats posted to India. The ambassador designate becomes ambassador after calling on the President and presenting his credentials. All treaties and agreements with foreign States are entered into, in the name of the President.

Emergency Powers

The President has been empowered by the Constitution to proclaim National Emergency under Article 352, State Emergency under Article 356, Financial Emergency under Article 360.

> Kerala and Punjab are the States where the President's Rule was imposed for maximum number of times i.e., nine times in both States.

Removal of the President

The President may by writing under his hand addressed to the Vice-President, resign his office. The President may, for violation of the Constitution, be removed from office by impeachment in the manner provided in Article 61; The Impeachment action can be brought about in the form of resolution in either house of the Parliament. It must be supported by not less than One-Fourth of the total strength of the House for its introduction. The President shall, in spite of the conclusion of his term, continue to hold office until his successor enters upon his office.

2.2 Vice-President

The vice-President occupies the second highest office in the country. He is accorded a rank next to the President in the official warrant of precedence. This office is modeled on the lines of the American Vice-President. Article

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63 of the constitution provides for a Vice President of India. This office has been created to maintain the political continuity of the state.

DR. RADHA KRISHNAN
(First Vice President of India)

Qualification for the election as Vice President

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He must have completed the age of 35 years.
- He must not hold any office of profit under the Union, State or local Government.
- He should have the other qualifications required to become a member of the Rajya Sabha.

Election and term of the Vice-President

Article 66(1) the Vice-President, like the president, is elected not directly by the people but the method of indirect election. The term of office of the Vice President is five years. His office may terminate earlier than the fixed term either by resignation, death or by removal. He is eligible for re-election. Till then deputy chairman of the Rajya sabha can perform the duties of the chairman of the Rajya sabha.

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DO YOU KNOW?

If the posts of President and Vice-President lie vacant, Chief Justice of India works as President. This situation happened in 1969 when Chief Justice M.Hidayutalla was appointed as President of India.

Removal of the Vice President

The Vice President may be removed from his office by a resolution of the Council of States (Rajya Sabha) passed by a majority of all the then members of the council and agreed to by the House of the People (Lok Sabha). A resolution for this purpose may be moved only after a notice of at least a minimum of 14 days has been given of such an intention.

Functions of the Vice President

The Vice-President is Ex-Officio Chairman of the Rajya Sabha.

- He regulates the proceeding of the House.
- He decides the order of the House.
- He decides the admissibility of a resolution or questions.
- He suspends or adjourns the House in case of a grave disorder.
- When the President is unable to discharge his duties due to illness or absence from the country, he attends to the functions of the President for a maximum period of six months.

Casting Vote

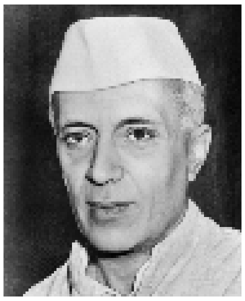
According to Article (100) of the Constitution, the vice-president can\only cast his vote when there is a tie over the Bill in the Rajya Sabha.It means that there is need for one vote only to pass the Bill. No members have any right to oppose his decision.

2.3 Prime Minister

Article 74 (1) says: There shall be a council of ministers with the Prime Minster as the head to aid and advice the President.

The post of Prime Minister of India has adopted the Westminster model of constitutional democracy. (The parliment of England is situated in Westminister so it's called Westminister parliment)

The leader of the majority party in Lok Sabha is appointed by the President as the Prime Minister. The other ministers are appointed by the President on the advice of the Prime Minister. If no



JAWAHARLAL NEHRU
(First Prime Minister of India)

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party commands absolute majority in the Lok Sabha, the President can summon the leader of any party who, in his opinion, can manage to form a ministry. The President administers to the ministers the oath of office and of secrecy. A person who is not a member of the Parliament can be appointed as a minister but he has to get himself elected to the Parliament within six months. Ministers are individually as well as collectively responsible to the Lok Sabha.

Duties and functions of Prime Minister

Article 78 mentioned the duties of the Prime Minister:

- The Prime Minister decides the rank of his ministers and distributes various departments.
- The Prime Minister decides the dates and the agenda of the meeting of the Cabinet which he presides.
- The Prime Minister informally consults two or three of his senior colleagues when he does not convene a Cabinet meeting.
- The Prime Minister supervises the work of various ministers.
- To converse to the President all decisions of the Council of Ministers connecting to the government of the affairs of the Union and proposals for legislation.
- The Prime Minister act as the link between the President and the Council of Ministers.
- The Prime Minister is the leader of the nation and chief spokesperson of the country.
- As the leader of the nation, the Prime Minister represents our nation at all international conferences like the commonwealth, summit of the non aligned nations and SAARC nations.

Council of Ministers

After the elections, the President of India, on the advice of the Prime Minister, appoints the council of ministers. The Constitution of India restricts the number of the Council of Ministers including the Prime Minister to 15% of the total members of the Lok Sabha.

Categories of the Ministers

The ministers are classified under three ranks

(i) Cabinet Ministers

(ii) Ministers of State

(iii) Deputy Ministers.

Cabinet Ministers

The Cabinet is an informal body of senior ministers who form the nucleus of administration. Important decisions of the government are taken by the Cabinet, such as defense, finance, external affairs and home.

Ministers of State

These ministers belong to the second category of ministers in the council. They are also in charge of ministries or departments but they do not participate in the meetings of the cabinet unless invited to do so.

Deputy Ministers

They are the lowest ranked ministers in the cabinet. They assist either the Ministers of Cabinet or State in the performance of the duties entrusted to them.

2.4 Parliament of India

The parliament is the legislative organ of the Union government. The Parliament of India consists of three parts they are the 1) President, 2) Rajya Sabha (the council of States) 3) Lok Sabha (the House of the People). The Rajya Sabha is the Upper House and the Lok Sabha is the Lower House it is termed as bicameral legislature.

Parliament

Rajya Sabha

The council of State or Rajya Sabha consists of 250 members out of whom 238 represent the states and the Union Territories, elected by the method of indirect election.

The 12nominated members shall be chosen by the President from amongst persons having 'special knowledge or practical experience in the field of literature, science, sports, art and social service.

Qualification of the Members

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He should not be less than 30 years of age.
- He should not hold any office of profit under any Government.
- He should be a person with sound mind and monetarily solvent.
- He should not be the member of Lok Sabha or any other legislature.

Term of House

The Rajya Sabha is a permanent house and it cannot be dissolved. The members of the Rajya Sabha are elected for a term of six years. One third of the members of Rajya Sabha retire every two years, and new members are elected to fill the seats thus vacated. The Vice President of India is the Ex-officio Chairperson of the Rajya Sabha. The Deputy Chairperson of the Rajya Sabha is elected by the members of the Rajya Sabha.

DO YOU KNOW?

Money Bill: Rajya Sabha does not have any power to amend or reject the Money bill. Lok Sabha can only introduce Money bill and once it is approved by the Lok Sabha, it is passed to Rajya Sabha for its approval. If Rajya Sabha fails to pass it within 14 days then the bill gets passed without the approval of Rajya Sabha. Also, Lok Sabha does not need to consider the amendments proposed by the Rajya Sabha. Lok Sabha can reject all the proposals and pass it.

Election

Members of Rajya Sabha are elected by the elected members of the 'State Legislative Assemblies' in accordance with the system of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote. This process of election is called "indirect election" as they are not elected by the people directly.

Lok Sabha

The Lok Sabha is the popular house of the Indian Parliament and contains elected representatives of the people. Maximum number of members can be elected for Lok Sabha is 552. The Lok Sabha as of today has 543 elected members. Out of these, 530 members are elected from different states and 13 members from the Union Territories. The President generally nominates two members belonging to the Anglo-Indian community. At present, the Lok Sabha consists of 545 members.

Qualification of the Members

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He should not be less than 25 years of age.
- He should have his name in electoral rolls in some part of the country.
- He should not hold any office of profit under the Union or State Government.
- He should be mentally sound and economically solvent.

The term of the House

Generally the Lok Sabha enjoys a term of five years from the date of its first session. It can be dissolved by the President before the expiry of its term on the advice of the Prime Minister. The emergency provisions of the Constitution enable the President to prorogue or dissolve the Lok Sabha either on the advice of the Prime Minister or on being convinced that no party or no alliance of parties enjoys necessary majority support in the House.

Election

The members of the Lok Sabha are directly elected by the people of the constituencies

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created on the basis of population. The Election Commission of India arranges, supervises and conducts elections to the Lok Sabha.

"Universal Adult Franchise" is followed while electing the members of the Lok Sabha. All Indian Citizens above 18 years of age who are registered as voters will vote for their representatives.

Universal Adult Franchise

Functions of the Lok Sabha

- Any bill can be introduced and passed in the Lok sabha (Including Money Bill).
- It has the same power as Rajya Sabha to participate in case of impeachment of president and the judges of Supreme Court.
- It has equal power as Rajya Sabha in passing any bill for constitutional amendment.
- Lok Sabha members have the power to elect the president, vice president.
- Motion of no confidence can only be introduced in Lok Sabha. If it is passed then the prime minister and other council of ministers need to resign from their post.

Elected members of the Parliament from Tamil Nadu.

- Rajya Sabha – 18 members
- Lok Sabha – 39 members

The Speaker

The Lok Sabha is presided over by the 'speaker' who is elected by its members. The office of the Speaker occupies an essential position in our Parliamentary democracy. The Speaker continues to be in the office even in the houses dissolved, till a new Speaker is elected by the new Lok Sabha. The Speaker presides over a joint sitting of the two Houses of Parliament. He has the power to decide whether a Bill is Money Bill or an ordinary one. While the office of speaker is vacant or the speaker is absent from the sitting of the house, the deputy speaker presides, except when a resolution for his own removal is under consideration.

Parliament Session	
Budget Session	February to May
Monsoon Session	July to September
Winter Session	November to December

Powers and Functions of the Parliament

- The Parliament of India has the functions of Legislation, overseeing of administration, passing of Budget, ventilation of public grievances, discussion of various subjects like development plans, international relations and internal policies.
- Parliament is also vested with powers to impeach the President and to remove Judges of the Supreme Court and High Courts, Chief Election Commissioner and Comptroller and Auditor-General of India in accordance with the procedure laid down in the Constitution.
- The Parliament has the power to change the boundaries of the States.

2.5 Attorney General of India

The Constitution (Article 76) has provided for office of the Attorney General for India. He is the highest law officer in the country. He is appointed by the President. He must be a person who is qualified to be appointed the Judge of the Supreme Court. He may be removed by the President at any time. He may also quit his office by submitting his resignation to the President.

Duties and Functions of Attorney General of India

To give advice to the Government of India upon such legal matters which are referred to him by the President. Attorney General of India has the right of audience in all courts in the territory of India. Further he has the right to speak and to take part in the proceedings of both Houses of the Parliament or their joint sitting and any committee of the Parliament of which he may be named a member, but without a right to vote. He enjoys all the privileges and immunities that are available to a member of Parliament.

2.6 Judiciary

Judiciary is the third organ of the government. It plays a vital role in protecting the rights and freedom of the citizens.

Supreme Court

The "Supreme Court is the Guardian of the Constitution". Our judiciary is autonomous of the Legislative and Executive wing of the Union and State Government. An integrated judiciary means a single judicial hierarchy for the whole country. The judiciary plays an important role in defensive the rights and freedom of the citizens. It plays an important role in analyzing and interpreting the necessities of laws and the constitution.

Supreme Court

> **DO YOU KNOW?**
> The Supreme Court of India, New Delhi was inaugurated on January 28, 1950. It succeeded the Federal Court of India, established under the Government of India Act of 1935.

Composition of the Supreme Court

At the commencement of the constitution in 1950 our supreme court consisted of 8 judges including the chief justice.

> Did you know the total number of judges including the chief justice of the Supreme Court at present...?

Appointment of Judges

The Chief Justice of Supreme Court in India is appointed by the President of India. The other judges are appointed by the President in consultation with the collegiums with Chief Justice Head.

Qualification of Supreme Court Judges

- He must be a citizen of India.
- He should have worked as a Judge of a High Court for at least 5 years. (or) He should have worked as an advocate of High Court for at least 10 years.
- He is in the opinion of the President, a distinguished Jurist.

The constitution also provides for the appointment of judges to the Supreme Court on an ad-hoc (temporary) basis. The Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court hold the office up to the age of 65 years.

The judges of the Supreme Court can resign before their term by giving their resignation in writing to the President. The Parliament also has power to remove the Judges by invoking impeachment provisions. The Supreme Court has its permanent seat in "New Delhi". It may also sit any other place in India which may be decided by the Chief Justice of India with the approval of the President of India.

Powers and Functions of the Supreme Court

(a) Original Jurisdiction

The cases which are brought directly in the first instance to the Supreme Court come under original jurisdiction. These may be (i) dispute between the Government of India and one or

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more States of (ii) Dispute between two or more states (iii) The writs are issued by the Supreme Court for the enforcement of the fundamental rights.

(b) Appellate Jurisdiction

The Supreme Court is the final appellate court in the country. As regard the Appellate jurisdiction, the Supreme Court hears appeals against the decisions of High Court in "civil, criminal and Constitutional" cases with a certificate from the High Court that it is fit to appeal in the Supreme Court. Such a case can be brought before the Supreme Court only if the High Court certifies that the case invites a substantial of law as to the interpretation of the Constitution.

(c) Advisory Jurisdiction

The Constitution confers on the President the power to refer to the Supreme Court any question of law or fact which in his opinion is of public importance.

(d) Miscellaneous Jurisdiction

- The law declared by Supreme Court is binding on all courts within the territory of India.
- The Supreme Court is authorized to make rules for regulating, generally the practice and procedure of the court with the approval of the President.

(e) Judicial Review

The power of the judiciary to declare a law as unconstitutional is known as "Judicial Review". The Supreme Court enjoys this power. The Supreme Court of India has Individual Review Power with regard to

1. Dispute between the Centre and the States
2. To interpret and clarify a provision of the constitution about which there are some doubts and differences of opinion.
3. Protecting the fundamental rights,
4. Those laws passed by the legislatures which are not in accordance with the Constitution.

SUMMARY

- The Central Government consists of three organs, namely, Union Executive, Legislature and Judiciary.
- President appoints the Prime Minister and the other members of the Council of Ministers.
- The Parliament of India consists of three parts they are the President, Rajya Sabha and Lok Sabha.
- The Attorney General for the India is the highest law officer in the country. He is appointed by the President of India.
- The "Supreme Court is the Guardian of the Constitution".
- The Chief Justice of Supreme Court in India is appointed by the President of India.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Terminate	bring to an untimely end.	முடிவுக்கு கொண்டு வருதல்
Contingency fund	an amount of money that can be used to pay for problems that might happen.	எதிர்பாரா செலவு நிதி
Pardon	Absolving the convict of all guilt and punishment.	பொதுமன்னிப்பு
Remission	Quantitative reduction of punishment without affecting Nature of punishment.	தண்டனை குறைப்பு
Precedence	priority of importance.	முன்னுரிமை
Ex-officio	because of an office.	பதவியின் நிமித்தமாக

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EVALUATION

I Choose the correct answer

1. The Constitutional Head of the Union is
   a) The President
   b) The Chief Justice
   c) The Prime Minister
   d) Council of Ministers
2. Who among the following decides whether a Bill is a Money Bill or not?
   a) The President
   b) Attorney General
   c) Parliamentary Affairs Minister
   d) Speaker of Lok Sabha
3. The Council of Ministers is collectively responsible to the:
   a) The President
   b) Lok Sabha
   c) The Prime Minister
   d) Rajya Sabha
4. What is minimum age laid down for a candidate to seek election to the Lok Sabha?
   a) 18 years b) 21 years
   c) 25 years d) 30 years
5. The authority to alter the boundaries of state in India rest with?
   a) The President
   b) The Prime Minister
   c) State Government
   d) Parliament
6. Under which Article the President is vested with the power to proclaim Financial Emergency
   a) Article 352 b) Article 360
   c) Article 356 d) Article 365
7. The Chief Justice and other Judges of the Supreme court are appointed by:
   a) The President
   b) TheAttorney General
   c) The Governor
   d) The Prime Minister

II Fill in the blanks

1. __________ Bill cannot be introduced in the Parliament without President's approval.
2. ___________ is the leader of the nation and chief spokesperson of the country.
3. ________________ is the Ex-officio Chairperson of the Rajya Sabha.
4. _________ has the right to speak and to take part in the proceedings of both Houses of the Parliament.
5. The Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court hold the office up to the age of _________years.
6. _____________ is the Guardian of the Constitution.

III Choose the correct statement

1. i) Total members of the Rajya Sabha is 250.
   ii) The 12 nominated members shall be chosen by the President from amongst persons experience in the field of literature, science, art and social service.
   iii) The Members of the Rajya Sabha should not be less than 30 years of age.
   iv) The members of the Rajya Sabha are directly elected by the peoples.
   a) ii & iv are correct
   b) iii & iv are correct
   c) i & iv are correct
   d) i, ii & iii are correct
2. i) The Chief Justice and other judges of the Supreme Court hold the office up to the age of 62 years.
   ii) Judiciary is the third organ of the government.
   iii) The cases involving fundamental rights come under the Appellate jurisdiction of the Supreme Court.
   iv) The law declared by Supreme Court is binding on all courts within the territory of India.

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a) ii & iv are correct
b) iii & iv are correct
c) i & iv are correct
d) i & ii are correct

IV Match the following

1.	Article 53	-	State Emergency
2.	Article 63	-	Internal Emergency
3.	Article 356	-	Executive power of President
4.	Article 76	-	Office of the Vice President
5.	Article 352	-	Office of the Attorney General

V Answer the brief questions

1. How is President of India elected?
2. What are the different categories of Ministers at the Union level?
3. Write short note: Money Bill.
4. List out any two special powers of the Attorney General of India?
5. What is the qualification of Judges of the Supreme Court?

VI Answer in detail

1. Describe the Executive and Judicial powers of the President of India.
2. What are the Duties and functions of Prime Minister of India?
3. Critically examine the Powers and Functions of the Parliament.
4. Explain any three Jurisdiction of the Supreme Court of India?

VII Project and activity

1. Organise a mock parliament in your class. Discuss the role of President, Prime Minister and Ministers.
2. Bring out the differences and similarities between the US and Indian President's.
3. Make a list of Presidents and Prime Ministers of India.

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ICT CORNER

Central Government

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below.
- Click on the items under the who's who menu to view the current Governing bodies and also know about the Lok Sabha & the Rajya Sabha.
- For example, click on the president from the leftside menu to view the details of the President.
- Likewise you can view all the details of the current Governing bodies.

Website URL:

https://www.india.gov.in/my-government/whos-who

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Unit - 3

State Government

Learning Objectives

- Students acquire knowledge about the structure of the State Government
- To understand the powers and functions of the Governor, Chief Minister, Ministers and Speaker
- To know about the State Legislature
- Understand the functioning of the judicial system in the State

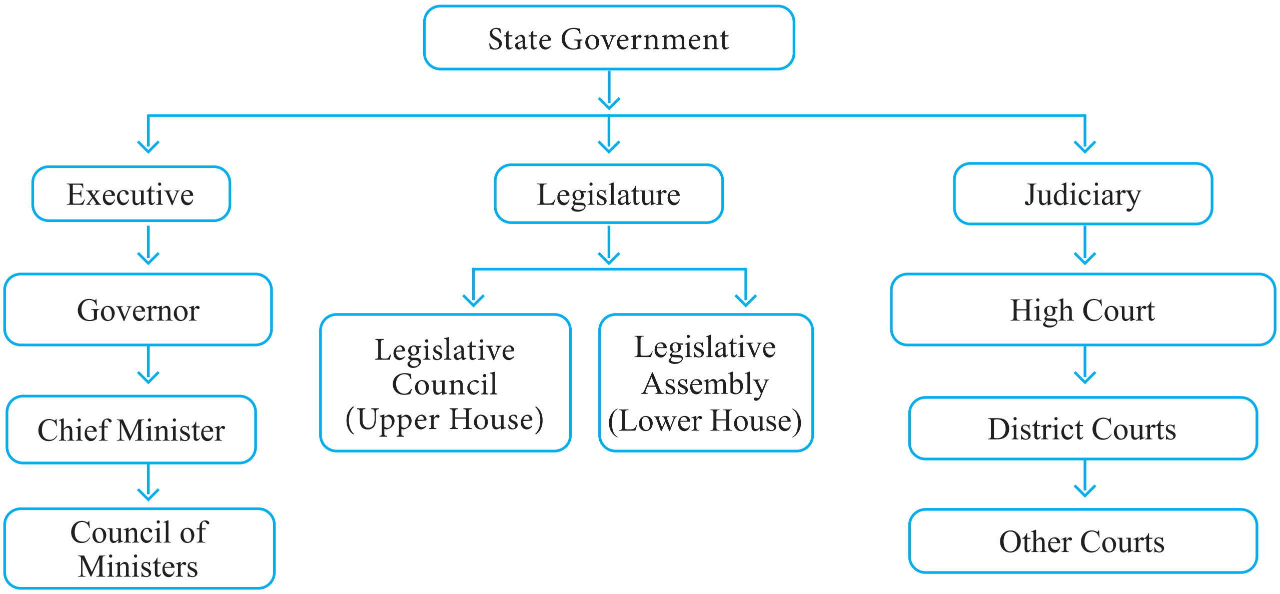
Introduction

The Constitution of India envisages for a federal government, having separate systems of administration for the union and the states. There are 28 states, 8 union territories including one national capital territory known as Delhi in India. The constitution contains provisions for the governance of both the union and the states. It lays down a uniform structure for the State Government, in part VI of the constitution from Article 152 to 237, which is applicable to all the states, The structure of the State Government, as formed in the Centre, consists of three branches. These are the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary.

3.1 The Executive

The Governor

The Governor is the constitutional head of the state executive. Generally, there is a separate Governor in each State but if the situation warrants so, the same person may be appointed



as the Governor of two or more States. Article 154 vests the executive power of the State in the Governor.

Appointment

The Governor of a State shall be appointed by the President. His usual term of office is five years but he holds office during the pleasure of the President. Generally, the Governor does not belong to the State where he is appointed. He can also be transferred from one state to another by the President. He can also resign any time by addressing his resignation to the President.

The Legislature of a State or a High Court has no role in the removal of a Governor. A person may be appointed as a Governor for any number of terms. Two conventions have been set up in the matter of appointing a person as Governor of a State. He should not be a resident of the State concerned and, the State Government concerned is consulted and its views are sought regarding the proposed choice.

According to Article 158 (3A), where the same person is appointed as Governor of two or more States, the emoluments and allowances payable to the Governor shall be allocated among the States in such proportion as the President may by order determine.

Qualification

Article 157 and Article 158 of the Constitution of India specify eligibility requirements for the post of governor. They are as follows:

X3C4Q

- He should be a citizen of India.
- He must have completed 35 years of age.
- He should not be a member of Parliament or of any State Legislature. If he is a member of any of Legislature, he automatically vacates his seat on assuming the office.
- He should not hold any other profitable occupation.

Powers and Functions of the Governor

The Governor is the head of the state executive and he has enormous powers. In the exercise of functions and powers, the Governor, except in certain cases, is to be guided by the aid and advice of the Council of Ministers headed by the Chief Minister (under Article 163).

Executive Powers

- He appoints the leader of the majority party in the State Legislative Assembly as the Chief Minister of the State.
- He appoints other members of the Council of Ministers on the recommendation of the Chief Minister.
- He appoints the Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission.
- He appoints the state election commissioner and determines his conditions of service and tenure of office.
- He acts as the chancellor of universities in the state. He also appoints the Vice Chancellors of universities in the state.
- He directly rules a State when there is the imposition of the President's rule in the State.

Legislative Powers

The Governor is an integral part of the state legislature. But, he is not a member in the either house of the legislature. In this capacity, he enjoys the following legislative powers and functions:

- He has the right to summon, prorogue the state legislature and dissolve the State Legislative Assembly.
- He can address the state legislature at the commencement of the first session after each general election and the first session of each year.
- He can send messages to the houses of the state legislature relating to a bill pending in the legislature.
- He can appoint any member of the Legislative Assembly to preside over its

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proceedings when the offices of both the Speaker and the Deputy Speaker fall vacant.

- He can nominate one member to the State Legislative Assembly from the Anglo-Indian Community.
- He nominates 1/6 of the members of the State Legislative Council from amongst the persons having special knowledge or practical experience in literature, science, art, cooperative movement and social service.
- Every bill passed by the state legislature will become law only after his signature. But, when a bill is sent to the Governor after it is passed by the legislature, he has the options to give his assent to the bill or withhold his assent to the bill or return the bill for the reconsideration of the legislature.
- He can promulgate ordinances when the state legislature is not in session under Article 213. But, these ordinances must be approved by the legislature within six months. He can also withdraw an ordinance at anytime.
- He has to lay the annual reports of the State Finance Commission, the State Public Service Commission and the Comptroller and Auditor General relating to the accounts of the state, before the state legislature.

Financial Powers

- The Constitution confers on the Governor, the duty to get prepared and introduced to the State Legislature, the annual budget and also the supplementary budgets, if necessary.
- Money Bills can be introduced in the Legislative Assembly only with his prior recommendation.
- He can make advances out of the state Contingency Fund to meet any unforeseen expenditure.
- He constitutes a Finance Commission after every five years to review the financial position of the panchayats and the municipalities.

Judicial Powers

- He appoints the Attorney-General of the State.
- He makes appointment, postings and promotions of the District Judges in consultation with the State High Court.
- The Chief Justice of the High Court in the State is appointed by the President in consultation with him.
- He can pardon, commute or reprieve punishment on receipt of appeals for mercy except death sentence.

Discretionary Powers

- The Governor can reserve a bill for the consideration of the president.
- He can call the leader of any party to form ministry in the state when there is no clear-cut majority to any party in the Legislative Assembly after the general elections.
- He can dismiss the Council of Ministers when it is unable to prove the confidence of the Legislative Assembly; and

Emergency Powers

If the Governor is satisfied that the government of the state is not carried on in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, he may, under Article 356, recommend to the President to impose President Rule in that State. As soon as the President Rule is imposed, the administration of the State is carried on by the Governor as the representative of the President.

Privileges of the Governor

Article 361(1) provides for the following privileges for the Governor;

- The Governor of a State, is not be answerable to any court for the exercise and performance of the powers and duties of his office or for any act done or purporting to be done by him in the exercise and performance of those powers and duties.
- No process for the arrest or imprisonment of the Governor of a State, shall issue from any court during his term of office.

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3.2 Chief Minister

In the scheme of Parliamentary system of government provided by the constitution, the governor is the nominal executive authority and the Chief Minister is the real executive authority. In other words, the governor is the head of the State while the Chief Minister is the head of the government.

The appointment of the Chief Minister

The Chief Minister is appointed by the Governor of the State. The term of the Chief Minister is not fixed. He may remain as the Chief Minister as long as he enjoys the support of the majority of the members of the Legislative Assembly. e has to resign when he losses confidence of the majority in the assembly. It is 'understood that normally he completes 5 years term like other members in the Legislative Assembly.

Powers and functions of the Chief Minister

Relating to the Council of Ministers

- The Chief Minister recommends the persons who can be appointed as ministers by Governor.
- He allocates the portfolios among the ministers.
- He shuffles and reshuffles his ministry.
- He presides over the meetings of the Council of Ministers and influences its decisions.
- He guides, directs, controls and coordinates the activities of all the ministers.

Relating to the Governor

He advises the Governor in relation to the appointment of the following officials:

- Advocate General of the State.
- State Election Commissioner.
- Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission.
- Chairman and Members of the State Planning Commission.
- Chairman and Members of the State Finance Commission.

Relating to State Legislature

- The Chief Minister advises the Governor with regard to the summoning and proroguing the sessions of the state legislature.
- He announces the government policies on the floor of the house.
- He can introduce the bills in the Legislative Assembly.
- He can recommend for the dissolution of the Legislative Assembly to the Governor anytime.

Council of Ministers

The Council of Ministers are collectively responsible to the State Legislature. All the members of the Council of Ministers must be the members of the State Legislature. Those who are not the members at the time of their appointment, must secure their seats in the Legislature within a period of 6 months. If a no-confidence motion is passed by the Legislative Assembly, the State Ministry shall resign.

Article l63 provides for a Council of Ministers to aid and advice the Governor. According to Article 163(1) there shall be a Council of Ministers with the Chief Minister at the head to aid and advice the Governor in the exercise of his functions, except in so far as he is by or under this Constitution required to exercise his functions or any of them in his discretion.

Other Provisions relating to Ministers

Article 164(1) holds that the Chief Minister shall be appointed by the Governor.

Article 164(1A) states that the total number of Ministers, including the Chief Minister, in the Council of Ministers in a State shall not exceed fifteen percent of the total number of members of the Legislative Assembly.

The functions and powers of the Council of Ministers

- It formulates and decides the policies of the state and implements them effectively.

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- It decides the legislative programmes of the Legislative Assembly and sponsors all important bills.
- It controls the financial policy and decides the tax structure for the public welfare of the state.
- It makes the important appointments of the Heads of Departments.
- It discusses and takes efforts on the dispute with other states
- It frames the proposal for incurring expenditure out of state reserves.
- It decides all the bills whether ordinary bills or money bills to be introduced in the Legislative Assembly.
- Each minister of the Council of Ministers supervises, controls and coordinates the department concerned.
- Annual Financial Statement called as the Budget is finalised by the Council of Ministers.

3.3 The State Legislature

The Constitution provides a legislature for every state. Most of the States have only unicameral legislature i.e., Legislative assembly. Some State has bicameral legislatures (example Bihar, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Telangana). The lower house, legislative assembly represents the people of the state the upper house; Legislative Council represents special interests like teachers, graduates and local governments.

Tamil Nadu Legislative Assembly

> In Tamil Nadu, according to the strength of Legislative Assembly (234 members), the number of ministers may be up to 36, i.e. 15 percent of 234.

The Legislative Assembly (Lower House)

The Legislative Assembly is a popular house. It is the real centre of power in the State. It consists of members directly elected by the people on the basis of adult franchise. The strength of the Assembly varies from State to State depending on the population. However the maximum strength of the Assembly must not exceed 500 or its minimum strength not be below 60. The term of office of the legislative assembly is 5 years. It can be dissolved even before the expiry of its term.

The size of the Legislative Council cannot be more than one-third the membership of the Legislative Assembly (lower house) of that state. But its size cannot be less than 40.

Composition

The Legislative Assembly of Tamil Nadu consists of 235 members out of which 234 members are directly elected by the people from the constituencies on the basis of adult franchise and one member is nominated by the Governor from the Anglo-Indian community.

Cabinet and Cabinet Committees

A smaller body called Cabinet is the nucleus of the council of minister. It consists of only the cabinet ministers. It is the real centre of authority in the state government.

The cabinet works through various committees called cabinet committees. They are of two types - standing and ad hoc. The former are of a permanent nature while the latter are of a temporary nature.

The Speaker

The Legislative Assembly elects two of its members as the Speaker and Deputy Speaker. The speaker may be removed from office by a resolution of the Assembly after giving a 14 days' notice. Such a resolution must be passed by a majority of the members present at the time of voting. The speaker does not vacate his office, when the Assembly is dissolved. He continues to be the Speaker until the first sitting

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of the new Assembly. While the office of the speaker is vacant, the Deputy Speaker performs his functions.

The Legislative Council (Upper House)

The legislative Council is the upper House of the State Legislature.

The Vidhan Parishads (Legislative Council) forms a part of the state legislatures of India. In Six of India's 28 states the Legislative Council serves as the indirectly-elected upper house of a bicameral legislature. It is also a permanent house because it cannot be dissolved. Every Member of Legislative Council (MLC) serves for a six-year term, with terms staggered so that the terms of one-third of members expire every two years. MLCs must be citizens of India not under 30 years of age, mentally sound and his name should be in the voter's list of the state from which he or she is contesting the election.

DO YOU KNOW?

The Tamil Nadu Legislative Council was abolished by Tamil Nadu Legislative Council (Abolition) Bill, 1986. The Act came into force on the 1st November 1986.

Election to Legislative Council

- 1/3 of the members are elected by local bodies.
- 1/12 of the members are elected by Graduates of the universities in the State.
- 1 /12 of the members are elected by Graduate teachers.
- 1/3 of the members are elected by the members of the Legislative Assembly.
- 1/6 is nominated by the Governor who is eminent in the field of literary excellence, art, social services or Co-operation.

The Chairman

The Chairman is the Presiding Officer of the Upper house. The Members elect a Chairman and a deputy chairman from among themselves. In the absence of the chairman, the deputy chairman officiate the functions of the Legislative Council.

Abolition or Creation of Legislative Councils

Article 169 deals with the creation or abolition of Legislative Council in a State. Article 169 holds that if the state Legislative Assembly passes a resolution by a majority of not less than 2/3rd of the members present and voting and by the majority of total strength of the House, requesting the Parliament to create or abolish the state Legislative council then the Parliament may by law provide for the abolition and creation of the Legislative Council.

3.4 Functions of the State Legislature

Legislative powers

The State Legislature can pass laws on all subjects mentioned in the State List as per the constitution. It can also pass laws on concurrent subjects. The State made law in a concurrent subject will become inoperative when the centre also passes a law on the same subject. The passing of Bill into law follows the same procedure, as in the union parliament. Every bill passes through three readings. Then it becomes an Act with the Governor's assent.

Financial Powers

The Legislature controls the finances of the State. The Lower House enjoys greater power than the Upper House in money matters. Money bills can be introduced only in the Lower House or the Assembly. No new tax can be levied without the sanction and permission of the Assembly.

Controls over the Executive

The Council of Ministers is responsible to the Assembly. The Ministers have to answer questions asked by the members of the Legislature. They can be removed from office if the Assembly passes a vote of "no confidence motion" against the Ministry.

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3.5 Judiciary of State

High Courts

The institution of high court originated in India in 1862 when the high courts were set up at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras. In the course of time, each province in British India came to have its own high court. After 1950, a high court existing in a province became the high court for the corresponding state. The High Courts are the highest courts at State level.

High Court of Madras

The Constitution of India provides for a high court for each state, but the Seventh Amendment Act of 1956 authorised the Parliament to establish a common high court for two or more states or for two or more states and a union territory.

For example, the States of Punjab and Haryana and the Union Territory of Chandigarh have a common High Court situated at Chandigarh. The High Court of Guwahati is common for four northeastern States of Assam, Nagaland, Mizoram and Arunachal Pradesh. The High Court of Guwahati has its benches in Itanagar, Kohima and Aizwal. Delhi, though not a State, has its own separate High Court. Every High Court has a Chief Justice and a number of judges. The number of judges varies from State to State. The number of judges of each High Court is determined by the President. At present there are 25 High Courts for 28 States and nine Union Territories.

> **DO YOU KNOW?**
>
> The High Court of Madras is the one of the three High Courts in India established in the three Presidency Towns of Bombay, Calcutta and Madras by letters patent granted by Queen Victoria, bearing date 26 June 1862. The High Court building is the second largest judicial complex in the world after London.

Jurisdiction and Powers of High Court

Original Jurisdiction

In their judicial capacity, the High Courts of the Presidency towns (Bombay, Calcutta and Madras) have both original and appellate jurisdictions, while other High Courts have mostly appellate jurisdiction.

Only in matters of admiralty, probate, matrimonial and contempt of Court, they have original jurisdiction. The Presidency High Courts have original jurisdiction in which the amount involved is more than `2000 and in criminal cases which are committed to them by the Presidency Magistrates.

Appellate Jurisdiction

As Courts of appeal, all High Courts entertain appeals in civil and criminal cases from their subordinate Courts as well as on their own.

They have, however, no jurisdiction over tribunals established under the laws relating to the Armed Forces of the Country.

Writ Jurisdiction

Under Article 226 of the constitution, the High Courts are given powers of issuing writs not only for the enforcement of the Fundamental Rights, but also for other purposes. In exercise of this power, a Court may issue the same type of writs, orders or directions which the Supreme Court is empowered to issue under Article 32.

The jurisdiction to issue writs under this Article is larger in the case of High Courts, for which the Supreme Court can issue them only where a Fundamental Right has been infringed, a High Court can issue them not only in such cases, but also where an ordinary legal right has been infringed. It has the power to issue the five

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kinds of Writs like Habeas Corpus, Mandamus, Prohibition, Quo Warranto, Certiorari.

Supervisory Jurisdiction

High court has the power of superintendence over all courts and tribunals functioning in its territorial jurisdiction (except military courts or tribunals) Thus, it may

- Call for returns from them;
- Make an issue, general rules and prescribe forms for regulating the practice and proceedings of them.
- Prescribe forms in which books, entries and accounts are to be kept by them; and
- Settle the fees payable to the sheriff, clerks, officers and legal practitioners of them.

Court of Record

All the decisions and decrees issued by the High Court are printed and are kept as a record for future references by the Court as well as by the lawyers, is such a need arises. Thus, it also acts as a Court of Record.

Statue of Sama Neethi Kanda Cholan at Madras High Court

SUMMARY

- The Governor is the constitutional head of the state executive.
- The Chief Minister is appointed by the Governor of the State.
- The Council of Ministers are collectively responsible to the State Legislature.
- The Legislative Assembly is the real centre of power in the State.
- At present there are 25 High Courts for 28 States and 8 Union Territories.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Constitution	It has been defined as the fundamental law of a State.	அரசியலமைப்பு
Cabinet	It is an inner body within the Council of Ministers which is responsible for formulating the policy of the Government.	அமைச்சரவை
Legislature	the group of people in a country or part of a country who have the power to make and change laws	சட்டமன்றம்
Tribunal	a special court chosen, especially by the government, to examine particular problem	தீர்ப்பாயம்
Resolution	an official decision that is made after a group or organisation has voted	தீர்மானம்

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EVALUATION

I Choose the Correct Answer

1. The Governor of the State is appointed by the
   (a) Prime Minister
   (b) Chief Minister
   (c) President
   (d) Chief Justice

2. The Speaker of a State is a
   (a) Head of State
   (b) Head of government
   (c) President's agent
   (d) None of these

3. Which among the following is not one of the powers of the Governor?
   (a) Legislative
   (b) Executive
   (c) Judicial
   (d) Diplomatic

4. Who can nominate one representative of the Anglo-Indian Community to the State Legislative Assembly?
   (a) The President
   (b) The Governor
   (c) The Chief Minister
   (d) The Speaker of State legislature

5. The Governor does not appoint
   (a) Chief Minister
   (b) Chairman of the State Public Service Commission
   (c) Advocate General of the State
   (d) Judges of the High Court

6. The State Council of Ministers is headed by
   (a) The Chief Minster
   (b) The Governor
   (c) The Speaker
   (d) The Prime Minister

7. The minimum age for the membership of the Legislative Council is
   (a) 25 years (b) 21 years
   (c) 30 years (d) 35 years

8. Which one of the following States does not possess a bicameral legislature?
   (a) Andhra Pradesh
   (b) Telangana
   (c) Tamil Nadu
   (d) Uttar Pradesh

9. The High Courts in India were first started at
   (a) Calcutta, Bombay, Madras
   (b) Delhi and Calcutta
   (c) Delhi, Calcutta, Madras
   (d) Calcutta, Madras, Delhi

10. Which of the following States have a common High Court?
    (a) Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh
    (b) Kerala and Telangana
    (c) Punjab and Haryana
    (d) Maharashtra and Gujarat

II Fill in the blanks

1. Governor of the state government surrenders his resignation to ________.
2. Members of the Legislative assembly (MLAs) elected by the ________.
3. ________ acts as the chancellor of universities in the state.

4. The Chairman and Members of the State Public Service Commission can be removed only by the ________.

III Match the following

1.	Governor	-	Head of the Government
2.	Chief Minister	-	Head of the State
3.	Council of Ministers	-	Tribunals
4.	MLC	-	Responsible for the Assembly
5.	Armed forces	-	cannot vote for grants

IV Answer the brief questions

1. What is the importance of the Governor of a state?
2. What are the qualifications for the appointment of Governor?
3. What is the original jurisdiction of the High Court?
4. What do you understand by the "Appellate Jurisdiction" of the High Court?

V Answer in detail

1. Describe the legislative powers of the Governor.
2. What are the powers and functions of the Chief Minister?
3. Critically examine the functions and powers of the Council of Ministers

VI Project and Activity

1. Prepare a flow chart showing the State Government's Administrative setup.
2. Students to list out the names of the Tamil Nadu Governor, Chief Minister and Ministers.

REFERENCE BOOKS

1. D.D. Basu - Introduction of the Constitution of India, S.C. Sarkar & Sons (Private) Ltd, 1982.
2. Subhash Kashyap - Our Constitution, National Book Trust, India, 2011.

INTERNET RESOURCES

1. www.tnrajbhavan.gov.in
2. www.tn.gov.in
3. www.hcmadras.tn.nic.in

ICT Corner

State Government

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below.
- Click on any state of the Indian map to view the official website of the state and its function.
- For example, click on the Tamilnadu state. An additional tab will open in the browser where you can see the official website of Tamilnadu.
- Likewise you can view the details of the other states.

Website URL:

https://www.mea.gov.in/india-at-glance.htm

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Unit - 4

India's Foreign Policy

Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, students will be able to

- Identify the basic principles of India's foreign policy
- Explain the meaning and significance of non-alignment
- Analyse the stages of our foreign policy
- Explain the importance of foreign policy
- Recognise the difference between domestic policy and foreign policy

Introduction

Foreign policy can be defined as a country's policy that is conceived, designed and formulated to safeguard and promote her national interests in her external affairs, in the conduct of relationships with other countries, both bilaterally and multilaterally. It seeks to secure the best interests of the people, territory and economy of the country. It is a direct reflection of country's traditional values and overall national policies, her aspirations and self-perception. Nations have also been interdependent. Interdependence has been an incontrovertible fact of international relations. The main tools of foreign policy are treaties and executive agreements, appointing ambassadors, foreign aid, international trade and armed forces.

The Ministry of External Affairs of India also known as Foreign Ministry comes under Government of India is responsible for the conduct of foreign relations of India. The foreign Service Training Institute, New Delhi established in 1986 provides training for officers of Indian Foreign Services(IFS).

The Constitution of India 1950

Article 51

Lays down Directive Principles of India's foreign policy.

The state shall endeavour to

- Promote International peace and security
- Maintain just and honourable relations between nations
- Foster respect for international law and international organisation
- Encourage settlement of international disputes by arbitration

4.1 Main Objectives of Our Foreign Policy

- National security
- National prosperity
- Increasing the number of friendly nations
- Achieving world peace and enable every nation to peacefully co-exist
- Economic development

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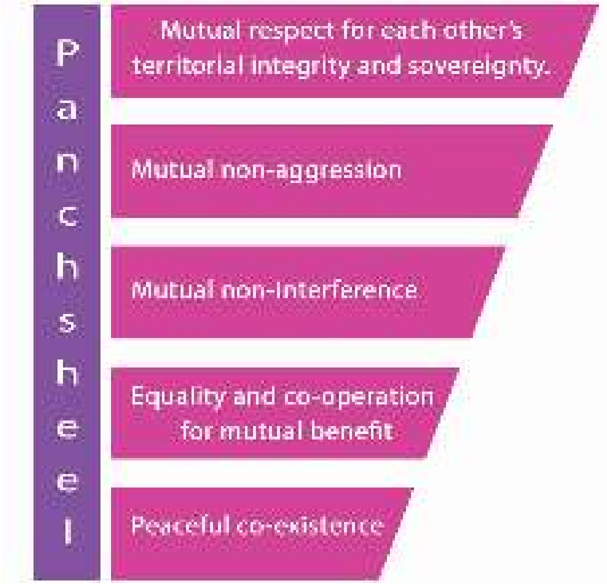
4.2 Panchsheel

(derived from Sanskrit words, *panch* = five, *sheel* = virtues)

The Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence (Panchsheel) between India (Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru) and China (Premier Chou-En-Lai) was signed on 28 April 1954, which stated that the two governments entered into an agreement based on the following principles:



These principles were incorporated in the Bandung Declaration signed in the Afro-Asian Conference held in 1955 in Indonesia.

4.3 Basic Determinants of a Foreign Policy

- Geographical position and size of territory
- Nation's history, traditions and philosophical basis
- Natural resources
- The compulsion of economic development
- Political stability and structure of government
- The necessity of peace, disarmament and non-proliferation of nuclear weapons
- Military strength
- International milieu

Foreign Policy in 1950s and 1960s

The period from Independence through 1950s and 1960s constituted the most idealistic phase of India's foreign policy under the guidance of India's first Prime Minister, Jawaharlal Nehru. The new nations that got independence after the long period of colonial struggle found themselves in a very difficult situation with respect to economic development. So it was necessary to align with either of the blocs – United States of America (USA) or Union Soviet Socialist Republic (USSR). Nehru, India's first Prime Minister, was opposed to the rivalry of the two superpowers (America and Russia) who were trying to extend their influence over the newly emerged nations of Asia and Africa. So he chose the path of Non-Alignment (i.e., not aligning with any bloc) in the face of the bipolar order of the Cold War and tried to form a third bloc of nations in international affairs.

"Broadly, non-alignment means not tying yourself off with military blocs.... It means trying to view things, as far as possible, not form the military point of view, though that has to come in sometimes, but independently, and trying to maintain friendly relations with all countries".

– Jawaharlal Nehru

4.4 The Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) in 1961

The term 'Non-Alignment' was coined by V. Krishna Menon in his speech at the United Nations in 1953. Non-alignment has been regarded as the most important feature of India's foreign policy. It aimed to maintain national independence in foreign affairs by not joining any military alliance. The Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) was formed with a membership of 120 countries and 17 states as observers and 10 international organisations. It has transformed from a political movement to an economical movement.

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The founding fathers of Non-Aligned Movement : Jawaharlal Nehru of India, Tito of Yugoslavia, Nasser of Egypt, Sukarno of Indonesia, and Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana were the founding fathers of NAM.

India's Foreign Policy during Cold War Era

The Non-alignment roots did not prevent India from entering into an alignment with the Soviet Union by the Indo-Soviet treaty of 1971 (20-year pact of 'peace, friendship and co-operation'). Then India embarked on a substantial programme of military modernisation. In 1974, India also conducted its first nuclear test at Pokhran under Subterranean Nuclear Explosions Project, in response to China's nuclear test in 1964 at Lop Nor.

Changing global conditions determine the foreign policy details. India got her political freedom in the aftermath of a disastrous Second World War, and India had to be redeemed from acute poverty illiteracy, and chaotic socio-economic conditions. Hence our new nation could not afford to military entanglements and military alliances. Avoidance of military blocs was then not an option but a necessity. Non Alliance did not mean neutrality, but the freedom of nations to decide on issues independently. Non-alliance did not mean demilitarisation of nations. It was meant to ensure de-escalation of conflicts and tension. Even wither discarding the 'Non-Alliance' India could enormously strengthen her defence system and could become a nuclear power. Flaws or faults in details of foreign policy executions have been addressed time and again but India's basic policy of non-Alliance is still in force.

First Nuclear Test at Pokhran (Rajasthan)

New Developments: in the 1990s and the 20th Century

During the 1990's along with the fall of the Soviet Union, a new global economic order (Liberalisation, Privatisation, and Globalisation) emerged with the support of the western powers. India entered into pacts with global economic forum (GATT) and entered into bilateral, trilateral, multilateral agreements. Its nuclear experiments resulted in intimidatory reactions from the western world.

This shifts in India's policy manifested in various ways such as

- Better relations with China – the Look East Policy (1992)
- The second nuclear test at Pokhran (1998) in Rajasthan
- Defence procurement relationship with Israel
- Energy diplomacy with Arab countries and Iran
- Agreeing to US nuclear missile defence program and
- India's vote against Iran at the International Atomic Energy Agency

India in the Resurgent 21st Century

The foremost task of India's foreign policy is to enable the domestic transformation of India.

India has adjusted to meet the needs of intensified economic engagement with the world, which is designed to meet the needs of an increased inflow of capital, technology, ideas and innovation for our development and our re-emergence as one of the world's leading economies.

India engages with current global subjects and articulates its international policies in order to gain a prominent place and makes its presence felt in on a global scale. It has joined new global groups like the Group of 20 (G-20), India, Brazil, South Africa (IBSA), and Brazil,

Russia, India, China, South Africa (BRICS), which gives more scope for India to play a larger role in global affairs.

India's global security concerns are reflected in its military modernisation, maritime security and nuclear policies.

India has emerged as a major voice in global decision-making and management, and as a bridge and balancing power in the emerging global strategic architecture. The response of our policymakers at economic, political and strategic level have enabled India to emerge as a potential great power though it faces enormous developmental challenges. These challenges include sustaining the country's economic growth rate, ensuring energy and security. Non-military issues like climate change, energy security, competition for scarce resources, food and water security, pandemics and migration. Though numerous and formidable, these challenges are not beyond the reach of India's policy establishment.

4.5 Basic Concepts of India's Foreign Policy

- Preservation of national interest
- Achievement of world peace
- Disarmament
- Fostering cordial relationship with other countries
- Solving conflicts by peaceful means
- Independence of thought and action as per the principle of NAM
- Equality in conducting international relations
- Anti-colonialism, anti-imperialism, anti-racism

Policy of Disarmament

Since independence, global non-proliferation has been a dominant theme of India's nuclear policy. So India supported UN disarmament programme. Indian nuclear programme in 1974 and 1998 is only done for strategic purposes.

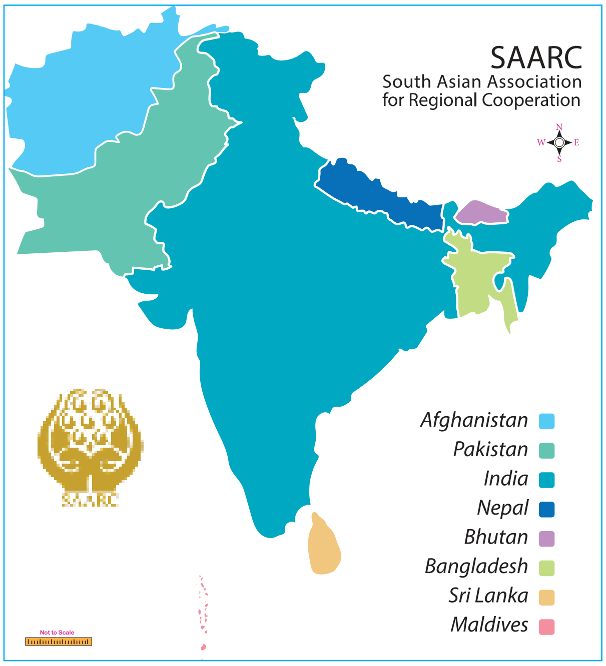
The two themes of India's nuclear doctrine are

- No first use
- Credible minimum deterrence

It has decided not to use nuclear power for 'offensive purposes' and would never use against any non-nuclear state. Indo-US civilian nuclear deal marks a significant progress in India's foreign policy.

4.6 SAARC – South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation

SAARC is an economic and geopolitical organisation of eight countries that are primarily located in South Asia. The SAARC policies aim to promote welfare economics, collective self-reliance among the countries of South Asia and to accelerate socio-cultural development in the region. SAARC Disaster Management Centre was set up at New Delhi. The Centre is a sleek body of professionals working on various dimensions of disaster risk reduction and management in South Asia. SAARC satellite is a proposed communication–cum-meteorology satellite by Indian Space Research Organisation (ISRO) for the SAARC region.



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The member countries are Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal, Maldives, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

Foreign Policy is a combination of strategies carefully formulated by a nation for maintaining relationship with other nations.

Diplomacy is the instrument for implementing foreign policy of a state.

4.7 Contemporary context: change and continuity in India's Foreign Policy

a) Prioritising an integrated neighbourhood: Neighbourhood First policy

India's foreign policy has always regarded the concept of neighbourhood as one of widening concentric circles, around the central axis of historical and cultural commonalties. India gives political and diplomatic priority to her immediate neighbours and the Indian Ocean Island states such as Maldives. This centrality of neighbours in India's foreign policy stems from the clear understanding that a peaceful periphery is essential for India to achieve her multifarious developmental goals. India provides neighbours with support as needed in the form of resources, equipment and training. Greater connectivity and integration is provided so as to improve the free flow of goods, people, energy, capital and information.

b) Bridging diplomacy and development

One of the major objectives of India's foreign policy has been to leverage international partnership for India's domestic development. This includes improving technological access, sourcing capital, gaining market access and securing natural resources.

c) A gradual transition from 'Look East' to 'Act East' policy

South East Asia begins with North East India. Myanmar is our land bridge to the countries of the Association of the Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). The purpose is to ensure a stable and multipolar balance of power in the Indo-Pacific and to become an integral part of Asia. This policy emphasises a more productive role for ASEAN and East Asian countries. The three big elements in our eastern policy are stronger emphasis on physical connectivity, commercial and security-related.

d) Economic development

Currently India's political moves are being influenced by economic imperatives. Many nations are moving to forge better relationship with India. Accelerated, balanced and inclusive economic development is India's primary goal. India achieves this by ensuring peace and security and by leveraging the nation's international partnership, to obtain all that is needed to fuel economic development, markets, investment, technology, linkage, mobility of personnel, fair global governance and a stable and fair environment conducive for growth.

e) India as a leading power

India is a member of the G20, the East Asia Summit and the BRICS coalition, a testament to its status as a large country with a fast-growing economy. India aspires for permanent membership on the UN Security Council. And India now has an increasing range of interests, which are anchored in different parts of the world and which stem from a wide range of factors such as the need to secure energy, vital natural resources, the imperative of maintaining open shipping lanes, seeking investments and trade opportunities overseas and the need to secure trade access.

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Difference between Domestic Policy and Foreign Policy

Domestic Policy	Foreign Policy
■ Domestic policy is the nation's plan for dealing issues within its own nation. ■ It includes laws focusing on domestic affairs, social welfare, health care, education, civil rights, economic issues and social issues.	■ Foreign policy is the nation's plan for dealing with other nations. ■ Trade, diplomacy, sanctions, defence, intelligence and global environments are the types of foreign policy.

Conclusion

Today India has formal diplomatic relations with most of the nations, besides being the world's second most populous country, largest democracy and one of the fastest growing country. Though India is not in any major military alliance, our relations with the major powers have acquired a strategic depth. Our common fight against terrorism is a particular element of strength. India has sought to achieve its security and socio-economic advancement while at the same time working for peace, freedom, progress and justice to all nations and peoples. Thus India adheres to the foreign policy principle that **'in international relations there is no permanent friend and no permanent foe, only the interests are permanent'.** New challenges forced India to adjust to new realities. Even then, basic framework of its foreign policy remained more or less the same.

SUMMARY

- The foreign policy of the government concerns the policy initiatives made towards other States.
- The Ministry of External Affairs is responsible for carrying out the foreign policy of India.
- A goal – oriented foreign policy has the potential to achieve improved relations with other nations.
- After independence joined the Commonwealth Nations and strongly supported independence movement in other countries.
- During cold war adopted the policy of Non-Aligning itself with any major power blocs.
- Foreign policy is currently focused on improving relations with neighbouring countries and major global powers.

A-Z GLOSSARY

External affairs	matters having with international relations	வெளியுறவு
multilateral	involving more than two countries	பலதரப்பு
procurement	process of buying	கொள்முதல்
pluralism	the practice of holding more than one benefice at a time	பன்மைக்கோட்பாடு
pandamics	an epidemic disease	பெருங்கொள்ளை நோய்

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EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. The Panchaseel treaty has been signed between
   a) India and Nepal
   b) India and Pakistan
   c) India and China
   d) India and Sri Lanka

2. Which article of Indian constitution directs to adopt foreign policy?
   a) Article 50
   b) Article 51
   c) Article 52
   d) Article 53

3. The Agreement signed by India and China in 1954 related to
   a) Trade and Commerce
   b) Restoration of normal relations
   c) Cultural exchange programmes
   d) The Five Principles of Co existence

4. Which is not related to our foreign policy
   a) World co operation
   b) World peace
   c) Racial equality
   d) Colonialism

5. Which of the following country is not the founder member of NAM?
   a) Yugoslavia
   b) Indonesia
   c) Egypt
   d) Pakistan

6. Non-Alliance means
   a) being neutral
   b) freedom to decide on issues independently
   c) demilitarisation
   d) none of the above

7. Non – military issues are
   a) Energy security
   b) Water security
   c) Pandemics
   d) All the above.

II Fill in the blanks

1. India conducted its first nuclear test at ____________.

2. ____________ is the instrument for implementing foreign policy of a state.

3. ____________ was India's policy in the face of the bipolar order of the cold war.

III Consider the following statement and tick the appropriate answer

1. Arrange the following in the correct chronological order and choose the correct answer from the code given below.
   (i) Panchsheel
   (ii) China's Nuclear test
   (iii) Indo - Soviet treaty
   (iv) First Nuclear test of India

   a) (i), (iii), (iv), (ii) b) (i), (ii), (iii), (iv)
   c) (i), (ii), (iv), (iii) d) (i), (iii), (ii), (iv)

2. Which of the following is not about NAM?
   (i) The term Non-Alignment was coined by V. Krishna Menon

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(ii) It aimed to maintain national independence in foreign affairs by joining any military alliance

(iii) At present it has 120 member countries.

(iv) It has transformed to an economical movement

a) (i) and (ii) b) (iii) and (iv)

c) (ii) only d) (iv) only

3. **Assertion(A)**: India has formal diplomatic relations with most of the nations.

Reason(R): India is the World's second most populous country.

a) A is correct and R explains A

b) A is correct and R does not explain A

c) A is wrong and R is correct

d) Both are wrong

4. Avoidance of military blocs was necessity for India after political freedom. Because India had to redeemed from

a) acute poverty

b) illiteracy

c) chaotic socio-economic conditions

d) all the above

IV Match the following

1.	Indian Ocean island	-	1955
2.	Land bridge to ASEAN	-	1954
3.	Panchsheel	-	Maldives
4.	Afro Asian Conference	-	Foreign Policy
5.	World Peace	-	Myanmar

V Give short answers

1. What is foreign policy?
2. List any four guiding principles of Panchsheel?
3. Name the architects of the Non-Aligned movement.
4. Explain India's nuclear policy.
5. List out the member countries of SAARC.
6. Differentiate: Domestic policy and Foreign policy

VI Answer in detail

1. Write a detailed note on Non-alignment.
2. Discuss the core determinants of India's foreign policy?

VII Project and activity

1. Identify any two aspects of India's foreign policy that you would like to retain and to change if you were the decision maker.

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INTERNET RESOURCES

1. https://www.mea.gov.in/
2. https://mnoal.org/
3. http://www.saarc-sec.org/

ICT Corner

India's Foreign Policy

Through this activity you will know about details of Indian embassy's in the world.

Step – 1 Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.

Step – 2 Click on 'Useful Links' in menu and select 'India Missions Abroad'

Step – 3 Click on respective country to view details on Indian Missions Abroad

Website URL:

https://mea.gov.in/index.htm

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Unit - 5

India's International Relations

Learning Objectives

After studying this lesson, students will be able to

- become familiar with our policies with the neighbouring countries
- understand the importance of India's policy towards developed nations
- gain knowledge about India's relationships with international organisations
- recognise the achievement of BRICS and OPEC
- imbibe the value of India's position among world countries

A bad neighbour is a misfortune, as much as a good one is a great blessing.

– Hesiod

Introduction

Independent India has been consistently fostering world peace and international co-operation. India abjured military alliances, but has been active in cooperating and co-ordinating with other nations for peace and economic development. As the first Prime Minister of India Jawaharlal Nehru stated "We can neither be absolutely dependent or independent, but we live in a world of interdependence."

India would prefer a peaceful, wealthy neighbourhood responsive to its own needs and wishes. India has always been known as a peace-loving country and has strived hard to champion the cause of peace in the world. For the country to progress in an adequate manner, the maintenance of international relations has been regarded as an important area. Being a country with a huge population, India is surrounded by many neighbouring countries with whom she has tried to maintain friendly and good neighbourly relations.

5.1 India and Its Neighbours

India's position is unique in its neighbourhood. India's neighbours had been a part of a homogenous culture prevailing in the Indian subcontinent for last five thousand years.

- India is a vast country with Pakistan and Afghanistan to the north-west
- China, Nepal, Bhutan to the north
- Bangladesh to the east
- Myanmar to the far east
- Sri Lanka (from south-east) and Maldives (from south-west) are two countries that lie close to India separated by the Indian Ocean. India has cordial historical, religious, economic, ethnic and linguistic relationship with all of these countries. Let us know about India's relations with its neighbours.

The countries that share the most number of neighbours touching its borders are China and Russia.

India and Afghanistan

Indo-Afghan relation was strengthened by the Strategic Partnership Agreement (SPA). SPA provides assistance to re-build Afghan's infrastructure, institutions, agriculture, water, education, health and providing duty-free access to the Indian market. India helped Afghans in the construction of Salma Dam in the Herat Province. India announced 500 scholarships for the children of the martyrs of Afghan Security Forces in school and colleges both in Afghanistan and in India. India is also supporting Afghanistan to improve its public health and small-scale industries. India is at the forefront of the promotion of investment in Afghanistan and a consortium of public and private Indian companies has been selected to make one of the biggest investments in the mining sector. To harness India's sports potential, India has built Kandahar International Cricket Stadium. India's Self Employed Women's Association imparts training on sustainable livelihood and to be self-reliant. Thus India is contributing proactively to the development of Afghanistan in the form of monetary aids and funds.

From the Indus Civilisation, India and Afghanistan have a deep-rooted multi-faceted relationship. During the reign of Kanishka, a large number of Indian missionaries went to China, Central Asia and Afghanistan to preach their religion.

Khan Abdul Ghaffar Khan of Baluchistan (a border province in today's Pakistan) was a prominent leader of the Indian Independence movement and active supporter of the Indian National Congress.

India and Bangladesh

India was the first nation to acknowledge Bangladesh (the former East Pakistan) as an independent country. India and Bangladesh share the longest land boundary of 4096.7 kilometres. India has plans to implement the proposed rail connectivity between Agartala (India) and Akhaura (Bangladesh). Bangladesh has granted India road transit facility through its territories from Kolkata to Agartala via Dhaka under BBIN-MVA (Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal Motor Vehicle Agreement). The Farakka accord on sharing of Ganga waters signed in 1977 is a historic agreement. India and Bangladesh share 54 common rivers and a bilateral Joint River Commission is working to maximise benefits from common river systems. The Government of India provides grant assistance for project under 'Aid to Bangladesh' for the construction of buildings, laboratories, dispensaries and deep tube wells. In addition, scholarships are granted by ICCR (Indian Council for Cultural Relations) every year to students from Bangladesh and it has initiated a Tagore Chair in University of Dhaka. Both the countries jointly inaugurated the construction of 130-kilometre Bangladesh India Friendship Pipeline between Siliguri in West Bengal and Parbatipur (Bangladesh).

The Teen Bigha Corridor is a strip of land belonging to India on the West Bengal–Bangladesh border, which was leased to Bangladesh in 2011.

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India and Bhutan

Bhutan, a small Himalayan kingdom, popularly known as a land of thunderbolt, is one of the poorest countries of the world. The diplomatic relations between India and Bhutan were established in 1968 with the appointments of a resident representative of India in Thimphu. Bhutan is a landlocked nation. So it is highly dependent on India for access to sea. India is the principal contributor in the economic development of Bhutan. India declared the bilateral trade relation known as 'Bharat to Bhutan' (B2B). India provides scholarship to Bhutanese students to study in prestigious institutions of higher learning and offered help in setting up a digital library in Bhutan. The prestigious Nehru-Wangchuk Scholarship is being awarded to deserving and talented Bhutanese nationals to undertake studies in selected premier Indian educational institutions. The hydel power sector represents one of the main indicators of bilateral co-operation between India and Bhutan. So far, Government of India has constructed three hydroelectric projects in Bhutan (Chukha, Kurichchu and Tala). India has helped Bhutan in developing that country's infrastructure by establishing telecommunication and in the construction of hospitals, roads and bridges.

Guru Padmasambhava, a Buddhist saint who went to Bhutan from India, played an influential role in spreading Buddhism and cementing traditional ties between people of both nations.

India and China

In terms of geographic and demographic dimension, skilled manpower and civilisational depth, China is the only country in the region which qualifies for comparison with India. China, being the manufacturing hub of the world, is strategically very important to India. India and China share similarity of view on many fronts like World Trade Organisation, international climate change talks and reforms of the World Bank. Shanghai Cooperation Organisation, which was China's initiative, has granted the observer status to India, while SAARC had granted the observer status to China. Both sides have established more dialogue mechanisms covering diverse sectors. Bilateral trade has registered enormous growth. India and China have signed an educational exchange programme. Under this agreement, scholarships are awarded to 25 students, by both sides, in recognised institutions of higher learning in each other's country.

McMahon Line: This is the boundary line between India and China, east of Bhutan. It was determined 1914 at a conference of representatives of British India, Tibet and China. The Secretary of State for India (in British Cabinet), Arthur Henry McMahon, represented British India at the Conference.

India and Maldives

Maldives is located south of Lakshadweep Islands in the Indian Ocean. The relationship with Maldives is important for India given its strategic location and geographical proximity. India and Maldives share ethnic, linguistic, cultural, religious and commercial links steeped in antiquity and enjoy cordial and multi-dimensional relations. Trade and

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tourism are being developed between the two countries. Both countries have agreed to strengthen cooperation to enhance maritime security in the Indian Ocean Region through coordinated patrolling and aerial surveillance and exchange of information.

India and Myanmar

India's second largest border is shared with Myanmar (known as Burma till 1989). Four North-Eastern Indian states – Arunachala Pradesh, Nagaland, Manipur and Mizoram – also share their borders with Myanmar. Myanmar is India's gateway to South East Asia. India is building the Kaladan Multi-Model Transit Transport, a road-river-port cargo transport project to link Kolkata to Sittwe in Myanmar. A project aiming to connect Kolkata with Ho Chi Minh City on the South Sea for the formation of an economic zone will have a road pass through Myanmar, Cambodia and Vietnam and work on the first phase connecting Guwahati with Mandalay is currently underway. Myanmar is an important partner in our energy needs for petroleum and natural gas. Some of the Indian companies such as Essar, GAIL and ONGC Videsh Ltd. have invested in Myanmar's energy sector.

India and Nepal

Nepal is a natural buffer between India and China. Being a small landlocked country, Nepal depends on India for economic support and transit facilities. India shares borders in five indian states – – Sikkim, West Bengal, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand – with Nepal. People residing in the border districts on both sides share deeper cultural bonds. Indian firms are the biggest investors in Nepal. India provides substantial financial and technical development assistance with the focus on infrastructure, irrigation, health, energy projects and community development. India built the 204-kilometre long Mahendra Raj Marg to link Kathmandu and India. Nepal is endowed with fast-flowing rivers and its terrain is ideal for hydroelectric power generation. India has taken up the work of 5600 MW Pancheshwar project, which remained stalled for 18 years after agreement. Nepali and Indian people visit each other's country for religious pilgrimage. Pashupati and Janakpur are traditional centres in Nepal whereas Varanasi and the four Dhaams (Badrinath, Puri, Dwaraka and Rameshwaram) are important pilgrimage destinations in India. The bond of friendship further increased when India included Nepalese language in the VIII

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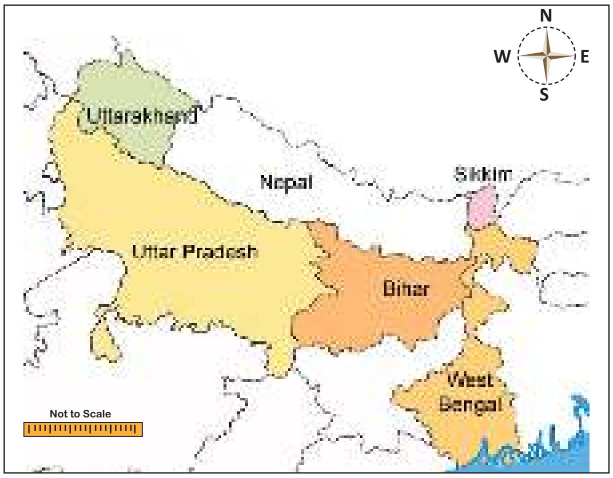
schedule of the Constitution. A joint hydropower project is being built on the Sharda River. This power plant helps both India and Nepal with respect to electricity production and irrigation facilities. From the environmental perspective, there are a number of tiger reserves along Indo-Nepal border. The governments of India and Nepal have signed three sister-city agreements for twinning of Kathmandu-Varanasi, Lumbini-Bodhgaya and Janakpur-Ayodhya.



India and Pakistan

Since the bifurcation of territory, which demarcated India and Pakistan in 1947, the two nations have had strained relations due to disagreements over a number of key issues. Terrorism remains our core concern in the relationship with Pakistan. Pakistan has been antagonistic when maintaining relations with India. But India has made extreme efforts to improve and stabilise relations with Pakistan. The cross-border firing between India and Pakistan and the terrorist attacks combined have taken its toll on the Kashmiris, who have suffered poor living standards and an erosion of human rights. Kashmir is the bone of contention between India and Pakistan, which has brought the two countries into an open clash many times. Cross-border terrorism is a major irritant. India tried to bring a positive change in the relationship of the two countries through bilateral agreements such as Shimla Agreement and Lahore Declaration.

LoC (Line of Control) The Ceasefire line determined in 1949 was called the LoC after 1972. This is the boundary that came to be agreed between India and Pakistan under the Shimla Agreement of 1972. It was called Radcliffe Line at the time of partition in1947, (Radcliffe was the chairman of the border commission.) This is now called LoC.

India and Sri Lanka

India has cultural, historical and religious ties with Sri Lanka. Separated by the narrow expanse of the Palk Strait, India and Sri Lanka have shared excellent trade relations committing to each other in both bilateral free trade agreements as well as developing interactions through SAARC. The relationship between India and Sri Lanka can generally be termed as friendly, except for the brief spell in which the Tamil ethnic problem cast its shadow on the relations between the two countries. India and Sri Lanka has conventionally close to each other. India is among the top investors in Sri Lanka and its investments are in diverse areas including petroleum retail, IT, real estate, telecommunication and tourism. On the other hand, the Sri Lankan investments in India include Brandix (garment city in Vishakhapatnam), MAS Holdings, John Keels, Hayleys, apart from the other investments in the freight servicing and logistic sector. India offers scholarship slots annually to deserving Sri Lankan students. Sri Lanka is also a partner in Nalanda University Project of India.

Ashoka had sent his son Mahinda and daughter Sangamitra to Ceylon (Sri Lanka) for the propagation of Buddhism. Chola kings Rajaraja I and Rajendra I conquered the northern part of Ceylon.

5.2 India's Relationships with Developed Countries

A developed country is a sovereign state that has a highly developed economy and advanced technological infrastructure relative to other less industrialised nations.

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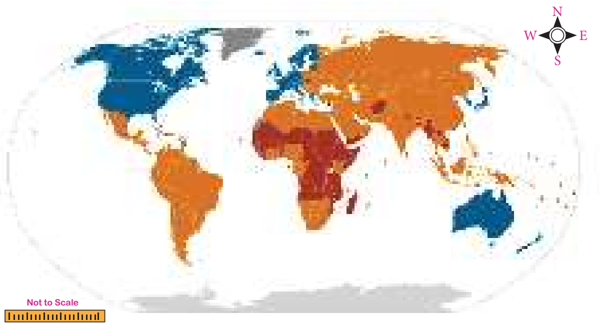

India has been balancing the superpowers with great care and had been trying to reap the maximum benefit for its domestic development.

a. USA

India and the United States of America has signed a Communications Compatibility and Security Agreement (COMCASA) that will lead to a new generation of bilateral military partnership. It is valid for a period of 10 years. COMCASA gives India access to advanced communication technology used in U.S. defence equipment and allows real-time information sharing between the militaries of the two countries.

b. European countries

There has been a significant progress in all areas particularly the growing cooperation and exchanges include defence, counter-terrorism, nuclear energy and space. French space launch pads are used by ISRO. India and France are cooperating on developing smart cities Chandigarh, Nagpur and Puducherry. India and France launched the International Solar Alliance, which brings together countries between Tropic of Cancer and Tropic of Capricorn for cooperation on solar energy.

c. Australia

India and Australia have built strategic trust over the years slowly yet steadily. Australia and India are committed to working together to enhance maritime co-operation with India's bilateral naval exercise (AUSINDEX).

d. Japan

India decided to introduce the Japan's Shinkansen system. It is a highest class of high-speed railway system with safety and accuracy. Delhi Metro is one of the most successful examples of Japanese co-operation. Mumbai–Ahmedabad High Speed Railway (MAHSR) is another area of co-operation. The Government of Japan has offered 20 seats per year to Indian nationals for a master's degree course in the University of Japan for serving the Indian Railways.

In the manufacturing sector Japan announced its co-operation of training 30,000 Indian people in the Japan India Institute of Manufacturing (JIM) providing Japanese style manufacturing skills to enhance India's manufacturing industry base and contribute to 'Make in India' and 'Skill India' initiatives.

In 2017, the first four JIMs were started in the states of Gujarat, Karnataka, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu and JEC (two Japanese Endowed Courses in engineering colleges) was established in Andhra Pradesh.

Recent initiatives include the establishment of three India-Japan Joint Laboratories in the area of information and communication technology (Internet of Things, Artificial Intelligence and Big Data Analytics).

5.3 India and West Asia

West Asia includes Egypt, the Arabian Peninsula, Turkey and Iran. India and West Asia enjoy pre-historical ties. Trade relations were established between the civilisations of Mesopotamia and the Indus Valley.

West Asia stands as a region of considerable significance for India, economically as well as strategically. West Asia is gateway to landlocked and energy-rich Central Asia. With the advent of the new millennium, there has been extraordinary turnaround in the relationship between the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries and India.

A trilateral agreement called the Chabahar Agreement was signed between India, Afghanistan and Iran, which has led to the establishment of transit and transport corridor

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among three countries using Chabahar port. This port is seen as golden gateway for India to access landlocked markets of Afghanistan and Central Asia bypassing Pakistan.

One of the oldest maritime trading routes ran from ancient Sumeria via Bahrain to the Indus Civilisation called Meluha.

In medieval times, comments a noted scholar M.S. Agwani, "the Indian expertise in medicine, mathematics and astronomy was highly valued by Arab and Iranian scholars who eventually made it part of their own intellectual traditions."

5.4 India and International Organisations

India is a potential superpower and has a growing international influence all around the world. Being a newly industrialised country, India has a great history of collaboration with several countries. It has acted as prominent member of several international organisations and has been a founding member of some. India is a member of formal groupings like UNO, NAM, SAARC, G20 and the Commonwealth.

India has been extending a helping hand to the UNO, in all her efforts in ending military conflicts, and in promoting peace and progress among the nations.

BRICS

Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa are leading emerging economies and political powers at the regional and international level. The BRICS organisation's headquarters is in Shanghai, China. BRICS opened up a possibility for countries of the Global South to challenge the Global North. India is an active member and this collaboration paves way for India to build its global profile.

Reason for the formation of BRICS

To be an alternative to World Bank and IMF to challenge U.S. supremacy

To provide self-owned and self-managed organisations to carry out developmental and economical plans in its member nations

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India is actively engaged in general economic diplomacy, which is evident in the country being part of several economic coalitions, as listed in the table below.

Name of the global groupings	Name of the member countries	Objectives
IBSA	India, Brazil, South Africa	To focus on agriculture, education, energy, trade, culture and defence among others
BCIM	Bangladesh, China, India, Myanmar	To respond to threats such as natural disasters and data breaches and protect business interests
MGC (Mekong Ganga cooperation)	India, Cambodia, Laos PDR Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam	To create necessary infrastructural facilities in the Ganga-Mekong basin
BIMSTEC (Bay of Bengal Initiative for Multi-Sectoral Technical and Economic Cooperation)	Bangladesh, India, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Bhutan and Nepal	To strengthen and improve the technological economic cooperation, international trade and foreign direct investment cooperation
RCEP (Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership)	Australia, Brunei, Cambodia, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, New Zealand, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam	To achieve modern high-quality and mutually beneficial agreement that covers trade in goods, trade in service, investments, technical cooperation dispute settlement and other issues
EAS (East Asia Summit)	10 ASEAN nations + 8 strategic partners including US, China, India, Japan	To promote peace and stability
GCC Gulf Cooperation Council	Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, India	To achieve unity based on their common objectives and their similar political and cultural identities
BBIN	Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Nepal	For energy development
SCO (Shanghai cooperation organization)	India, Kazakhstan, China, Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Russia, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan	For security-related concerns, resolving border issues, intelligence sharing and countering terrorism

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Objectives of BRICS

- To achieve regional development
- It acts as a bridge between developed and developing countries
- To contribute extensively to development of humanity
- To establish a more equitable and fair world
- Boost intra BRICS trade in their local currencies to increase trade cooperation and cope with the current international financial crisis
- To promote the technological information exchange among the member states
- To enhance inclusive economic growth that will lead to an increase in the creation of jobs, fight against poverty and accelerate the economic transformation of members.

> The acronym BRICS was coined by Jim O'Neill, a famous British economist. He predicted that by year 2050 Brazil, Russia, India and China would become bigger than the six most industrialised nations in dollar terms and would completely change the power dynamics of the last 300 years.

The financial architecture of BRICS

The New Development Bank (NDB) is a multilateral development bank. Its primary focus is lending for infrastructure projects. It aims to contribute to development plans established nationally through projects that are socially, environmentally and economically sustainable. It gives priority to projects aimed at developing renewable energy sources.

The Contingent Reserve Arrangement (CRA) is a framework for providing protection against global liquidity pressures, which includes currency issues.

BRICS payment system

At the 2015 BRICS Summit, ministers from the BRICS nations initiated consultations for a payment system that would be an alternative to the Society for Worldwide Interbank Financial Telecommunication (SWIFT) system.

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The factors that bolster co-operation among members

First, the common need among developing countries to construct an economic order that reflects the current situation will drive the BRICS efforts. In this matter, the idea of NDB and CRA are defining changes and will have huge geo-economic and geopolitical impact.

Second, the BRICS alternative idea in the landscape of global governance will attract support from other countries.

Third, the expansion of BRICS interaction to other sector will make it more strong partnership.

OPEC

OPEC, the Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (a group of oil-producing nations), is an intergovernmental organisation founded in Baghdad, Iraq, and headquartered in Vienna, Austria. Iran, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia and Venezuela are the OPEC's Founder Members.

There are three categories of memberships: Founder Members, Full Members and Associate Members. OPEC membership is open to any country that exports crude oil and which shares the ideals of the organisation.

OPEC's mission

- To coordinate oil policies in its member countries
- Help stabilise oil markets
- To secure fair and stable income to petroleum producers
- An efficient, economic and regular supply of oil to consuming nations
- A fair return on capital to those investing in the petroleum industry

How does OPEC help other countries?

The OPEC Fund for International Development (OPID) is an institution that helps finance projects with low interest loans. It also provides grants to social and humanitarian projects.

The OPEC LOGO

It is the result of an international design competition held in 1969. An Austrian designer Svoboda won the competition with her design, which combined the different letters of the organisation's name in a rounded design.

OPEC has an Information Centre with over 20,000 volumes including books, reports, maps and conference proceedings related to petroleum, energy and the oil market. The Information Centre is open to the public and is often used by researchers and students.

India's relationship with OPEC

India is one of the biggest consumers of crude oil. OPEC obviously has vested interest in India's economic growth. We import 86% of crude oil, 70% natural gas, 95% of cooking gas from OPEC countries. India has been identified as a great partner for OPEC mainly because of its high oil demand.

India doesn't have enough oil reserves. India can't produce oil. Devoid of necessary oil reserves India strongly focuses on agriculture, and industrial production.

Conclusion

Apart from economic and trade cooperation, India also aspires to have a warm relationship with its neighbours and extended neighbours in the field of education, health, fighting terrorism, disaster management, employment for its citizens, curbing organised crimes, technology development and so on.

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SUMMARY

- India has always been known as a peace – loving country and has strived hard to champion the cause of peace in the world.
- India has cordial, historical, religious, economic, ethnic and linguistic relationship with all its neighbouring countries.
- India supports its neighbours to improve public health, small scale industries, tele communication, education and in the construction of roads and bridges,
- Government of India provides grant assistance for the construction of buildings, laboratories, dispensaries and deep tube wells to its neighbours.
- India is contributing proactively to the development of its neighbours in the form of monetary aids and funds.
- India has good relationship with the superpowers and tries to reap the maximum benefit for its domestic development.
- India extend it support to the UNO in all her efforts.
- India is an active member of BRICS and it paves way for India to build its global profile.

A-Z GLOSSARY

homogenous	of the same kind/alike	ஒரினத்தைச் சேர்ந்த
bilateral trade	trading between two countries	இருதரப்பு வர்த்தகம்
hydroelectric project	producing electricity by using the power of fast moving water	நீர் மின்சார திட்டம்
infrastructure	the basic organisational facilities	உள்கட்டமைப்பு
antiquity	the ancient past	தொன்மை
bifurcation	to divide into two parts	இரண்டாகப் பிரித்தல்
surveillance	Close observation	கண்காணிப்பு

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EXERCISE

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I Choose the correct answer

1. Mc Mahon Line is a border between
   a) Burma and India
   b) India and Nepal
   c) India and China
   d) India and Bhutan
2. India is not a member of which of the following
   1) G20
   2) ASEAN
   3) SAARC
   4) BRICS
   a) 2 only　　b) 2 and 4
   c) 2, 4 and 1　　d) 1, 2 and 3
3. OPEC is
   a) An international insurance Co.
   b) An international sports club
   c) An Organisation of Oil Exporting Countries
   d) An international company
4. With which country does India share its longest land border?
   a) Bangladesh　　b) Myanmar
   c) Afghanistan　　d) China
5. Match the following and choose the correct answer form the codes given below.
   i) Salma Dam - 1. Bangladesh
   ii) Farakka accord - 2. Nepal
   iii) Chukha hydroelectric project - 3. Afghanistan
   iv) Sharda River project - 4. Bhutan
   a) 3 1 4 2　　b) 3 1 2 4
   c) 3 4 1 2　　d) 4 3 2 1
6. How many countries share its border with India?
   a) 5　b) 6　c) 7　d) 8
7. Which two island countries are India's neighbours?
   a) Sri Lanka and Andaman island
   b) Maldieves and Lakshadweep island
   c) Maldieves and Nicobar island
   d) Sri Lanka and Maldieves
8. Which Indian state is surrounded by three countries?
   a) Arunachal Pradesh
   b) Meghalaya
   c) Mizoram
   d) Assam
9. How many Indian states have their boundary with Nepal?
   a) Five　　b) Four
   c) Three　　d) Two
10. Who drew up the borders for independent Pakistan?
    a) Lord Mountbatten
    b) Sir Cyril Radcliffe
    c) Clement Atlee
    d) None of the above.

II Fill in the blanks

1. ____________ is a small Himalayan kingdom.
2. India's gateway to South East Asia is ____________.
3. A strip of land ____________, belongs to India on West Bengal and Bangladesh border.
4. ____________ is known as the Land of thunderbolt.

III Consider the following statement and tick the appropriate answer

1. The Kaladan transport project by India and Myanmar consists of which of the following modes of transport?

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1. Roads 2. Railways
3. Shipping 4. Inland water transport

Select the correct answer using the codes given below

a) 1, 2 and 3 only
b) 1, 3 and 4 only
c) 2, 3 and 4 only
d) 1, 2, 3 and 4

2. **Assertion (A):** India and France launched International Solar Alliance.

Reason (R): It was done to bring together countries between Tropic of Cancer and Tropic of Capricorn for co-operation of solar energy.

a) A is correct and R is the correct explanation of A
b) A is correct and R is not the correct explanation of A
c) A is wrong and R is correct
d) Both are wrong

IV Match the following

1.	Brandix	-	Vienna
2.	COMCASA	-	Japan
3.	Shinkansen system	-	Shanghai
4.	BRICS	-	USA
5.	OPEC	-	Garment city in Vishakapatnam

V Give short answers

1. Name the neighbouring countries of India.
2. Write a short note on Strategic partnetship Agreement (SPA).
3. What do you know about Kaladan Multi – Model Transit Transport?
4. What is the role of Japan India Institute of Manufacturing (JIM)?
5. How do you assess the importance of Chabahar agreement?
6. Mention the member countries of BRICS.
7. List out any five global groupings in which India is a member.

VI Answer in detail

1. Trace the reason for the formation of BRICS and write its objectives.
2. Mention OPEC missions and how does it help other countries?
3. Highlight India and International organisation with special reference to any three India's global groupings.

VII Project and activity

1. Students can be asked to collect information form newspapers about India's relation with world countries.
2. Group project involving students to prepare an album with pictures on India's latest projects with its neighboring countries.

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ECONOMICS

Unit - 1

Gross Domestic Product and its Growth: an Introduction

Learning Objectives

- To know about the meaning of Gross Domestic Product
- To Understand the basic various measures of National Income
- To understand the composition of GDP
- To know the contribution of different sectors in GDP
- To know the economic growth and development and its differences
- To know about Development path based on GDP And Employment
- To understand the growth of GDP and Economic Policies

Introduction

To understand how the GDP tells us how India is doing, you should understand what GDP is.

Imagine what happens in a hotel. You place an order for two Idlis and a cup of tea. Someone makes the idlis and tea and someone else serves you.

Idlis and tea are produced . These are tangible, physical things you can touch and feel. Economists call such tangible items "goods". These goods are not free but have to pay or to be paid.

Though you don't realise it in addition to these tangible things called goods, something else is being produced : the work done by the cooks and the people who serve the food. The activity of cooking and serving is not something you can feel and touch. Such activities are not tangible but are nevertheless crucial for you to enjoy the food. Economists call such activity "services".

What happens everyday in a hotel at nation wide: goods and services are produced and paid for and this what the GDP measures.

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DEFINITION OF GDP

The GDP is the market value of all the final goods and services produced in the country during a time period.

GDP = C + I + G + (X – M)

C = Consumption I = Investment

G = Government Expenditure

(X – M) = X = Exports – M = Imports

Every part of the definition is important.

Goods and services: As you know by now, goods are tangible items while services are activities which are intangible .

Market value: This is the price at which goods and services are sold in the market.

Final goods and services: Economists Tyler Cowen and Alex Tabarrok say that "final goods and services" are the goods and services which will be used or consumed. The goods and services which will be used for producing other goods and services and will form a part of the goods and services produced are called "intermediate goods".

Only the final goods are included in the GDP. Intermediate goods are not counted in calculating the GDP because their value is included in the final goods. So if the intermediate goods are included in the GDP it will result in what is called "double counting".

For example, a cup of tea bought in a hotel is a final good because it is consumed and does not form a part of producing something else. So the market value of the cup of tea, being a final good, is included in the GDP. Sugar which is mixed in the tea is an intermediate good because it is used in making tea and forms a part of the tea served. Suppose the tea is priced ₹10 a cup, of which the value of sugar used is ₹2. So the price of the cup of tea includes the ₹2 price of the spoon of sugar. If this value of sugar is included in the GDP , it will be counted twice: as a spoon of sugar and again as a part of the cup of tea. This is "double counting" and to avoid it the intermediate goods like sugar are excluded from GDP.

1.1 National Income

'National Income is a measure of the total money value of goods and services produced by an economy over a period of time, normally a year'. Commonly National Income is called as Gross National Product(GNP) or National Dividend.

Various terms associated with measuring of National Income

1. Gross National Product (GNP)

Gross National Product is the total value of goods and services produced and income received in a year by domestic residents of a country. It includes profits earned from capital invested abroad.

GNP = C + I + G + (X–M) + NFIA)

C = Consumption

I = Investment

G = Government Expenditure

X-M = Export – Import

NFIA = Net Factor Income from Abroad)

2. Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is the total value of output of goods and services produced by the factors of production within the geographical boundaries of the country.

3. Net National Product (NNP)

Net National Product(NNP) is arrived by making some adjustment with regard to depreciation that is we arrive the Net National Product (NNP) by deducting the value of depreciation from Gross National Product. (NNP = GNP – Depreciation)

4. Net Domestic Product (NDP)

Net Domestic Product (NDP) is a part of Gross Domestic Product, Net Domestic Product is obtained from the Gross Domestic Product by deducting the Quantum of tear and wear expenses (depreciation)

NDP = GDP – Depreciation

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5. Per Capita Income (PCI)

Per capita Income or output per person is an indicator to show the living standard of people in a country. It is obtained by dividing the National Income by the population of a country.

Per capita Income = National Income / Population

In 1867-68 for the first time Dadabhai Navroji had ascertained the Per Capital Income in his book "*Poverty and Un-British Rule of India*".

6. Personal Income (PI)

Personal income is the total money income received by individuals and households of a country from all possible sources before direct taxes.

7. Disposable Income (DI)

Disposable income means actual income which can be spent on consumption by individuals and families, thus, it can be expressed as DPI = PI – Direct Taxes

(From consumption approach DI = Consumption Expenditures + Savings)

1.2 Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Produced in the country: GDP of India includes only the market value of goods and services produced in India. For example the market value of apples produced in Kashmir are included in our GDP since Kashmir is in India. The market value of apples produced in California, even if they are sold in Indian markets, are not included in our GDP because California is in the U.S.

Produced during a time period

The GDP of a country measures the market value of goods and services produced only during the specified time period. The goods and services produced in earlier periods are not included.

In India the GDP is measured both annually and quarterly. The annual GDP is for a financial year which is from April 1st of say 2017 to March 31st 2018.

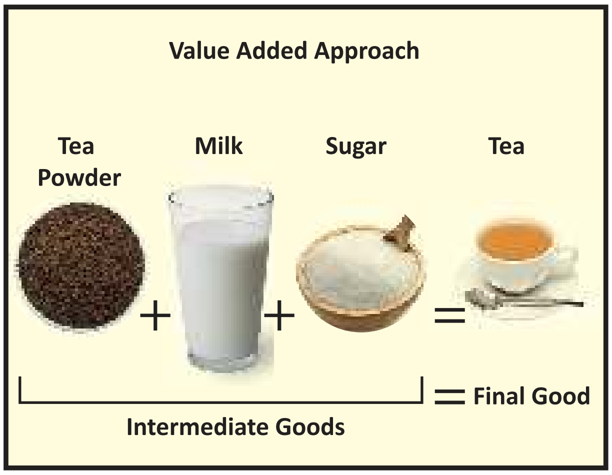
DO YOU KNOW? The modern concept of GDP was first developed by Simon Kuznets for a US Congress report in 1934.

Methods of GDP Calculating

1. **Expenditure Approach:** In this method, the GDP is measured by adding the expenditure on all the final goods and services produced in the country during a specified period. Y = C + I + G + (X – M)

2. **The Income Approach:** This method looks at GDP from the perspective of the earnings of the men and women who are involved in producing the goods and services. The income approach to measuring GDP (Y) is Y = wages + rent + interest + profit

3. **Value-Added Approach:** A cup of tea served to you in a hotel is a "final good". The goods used to produce it , tea powder, milk, and sugar, are "intermediate goods" since they form a part of the final good, the cup of tea. One way to measure the market value of the cup of tea is to add the value produced by each intermediate good used to produce it. The sum of the value added by all the intermediate goods used in production gives us the total value of the final goods produced in the economy.



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Value added method

Tea powder + Milk + Sugar = Tea

Value of intermediate goods = Value of final goods

Importance of GDP

1. Study of Economic Growth.
2. Problems of inflation and deflation.
3. Comparison with developed countries of the world.
4. Estimate the purchasing power.
5. Study of Public Sector.
6. Guide to economic planning.

Limitations of GDP

1 **Several important goods and services are left out of the GDP:** The GDP includes only the goods and services sold in the market. The services provided by parents to their children is very important but it is not included in the GDP because it is not sold in the market. Likewise clean air, which is vital for a healthy life, has no market value and is left out of the GDP.

2 **GDP measures only quantity but not quality:** In the 1970s schools and banks did not permit the use of ballpoint pens. This is because the ones available in India were of very poor quality. Since then, not only has there been a substantial increase in the quantity of ballpoint pens produced in India but their quality has also improved a lot. The improvement in quality of goods is very important but it is not captured by the GDP.

3 **GDP does not tell us about the way income is distributed in the country:** The GDP of a country may be growing rapidly but income may be distributed so unequally that only a small percentage of people may be benefitting from it.

4 **The GDP does not tell us about the kind of life people are living:** A high level of per capita real GDP can go hand-in-hand with very low health condition of people, an undemocratic political system, high pollution and suicide rate.

DO YOU KNOW?

Estimation of GDP

The Central Statistical Organisation (CSO), under the Ministry of Statistical department keeps the records. It's processes involves conducting an annual survey of industries and compilation of various indexes like the Index of Industrial Production (IIP) Consumer Price Index (CPI) etc.

1.3 Composition of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

Indian economy is broadly divided into three sector

1) Primary Sector: (Agricultural Sector)

Agricultural sector is known as primary sector, in which agricultural operations are undertaken. Agriculture based allied activities, production of raw materials such as cattle farm, fishing, mining, forestry, corn, coal etc. are also undertaken.

Forestry

2) Secondary Sector: (Industrial Sector)

Industrial sector is secondary sectors in which the goods and commodities are produced by transforming the raw materials. Important industries are Iron and Steel industry, cotton textile, Jute, Sugar, Cement, Paper, Petrochemical, automobile and other small scale industries.

Industry

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3) Tertiary: (Service Sector)

Postal Department

Tertiary sector is known as service sector which includes Government, scientific research, transport communication, trade, Postal Department, Banking, Education, Entertainment, Healthcare and Information Technology etc..

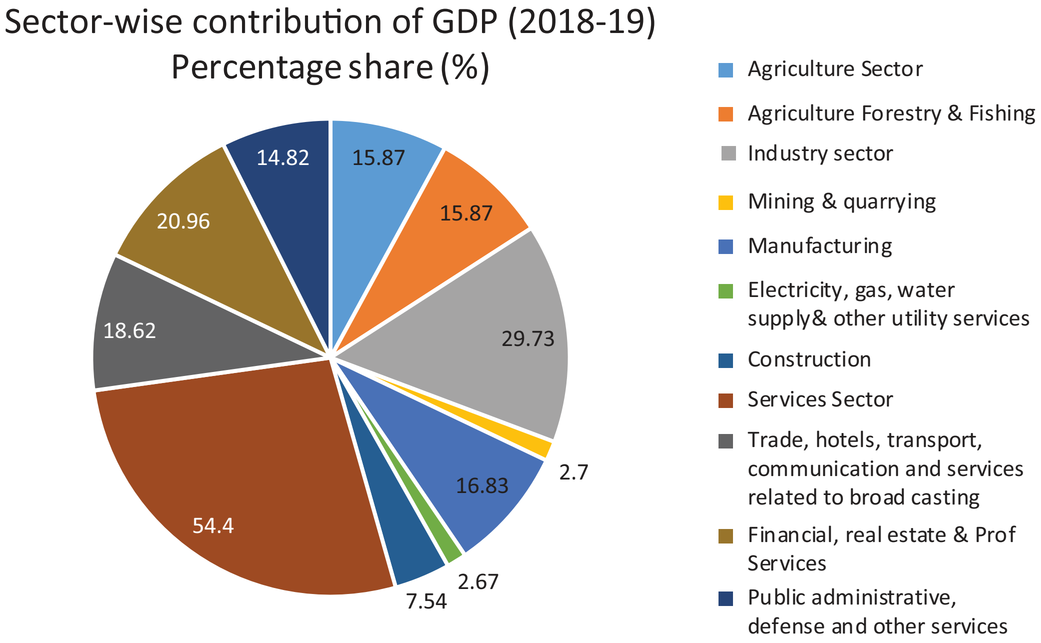
In the 20th century, economists began to suggest that, traditional tertiary services could be further distinguished from "quaternary" and "quinary" service sectors.

1.4 Contribution of different sectors in GDP of India

Services sector is the largest sector of India. Gross Value Added (GVA) at current prices for Services sector is estimated at 92.26 lakh crore in 2018-19.

Sector-wise Contribution in GDP of India

Year	Agriculture(%)	Industry(%)	Service(%)
1950-51	51.81	14.16	33.25
1960-61	42.56	19.30	38.25
1970-71	41.95	20.48	37.22
1980-81	35.39	24.29	39.92
1990-91	29.02	26.49	44.18
2000-01	23.02	26.00	50.98
2010-11	18.21	27.16	54.64
2011-12	17.86	27.22	54.91
2012-13	17.52	26.21	56.27
2013-14	18.20	24.77	57.03
2015-16	17.07	29.08	52.05
2016-17	17.09	29.03	52.08
2017-18	17.01	29.01	53.09
Source: Central Statistical Organisation			



Source: Statistics times.com.

Note: The Diagram shows that Sector-wise contribution in GDP of India for the year 2018 - 2019.

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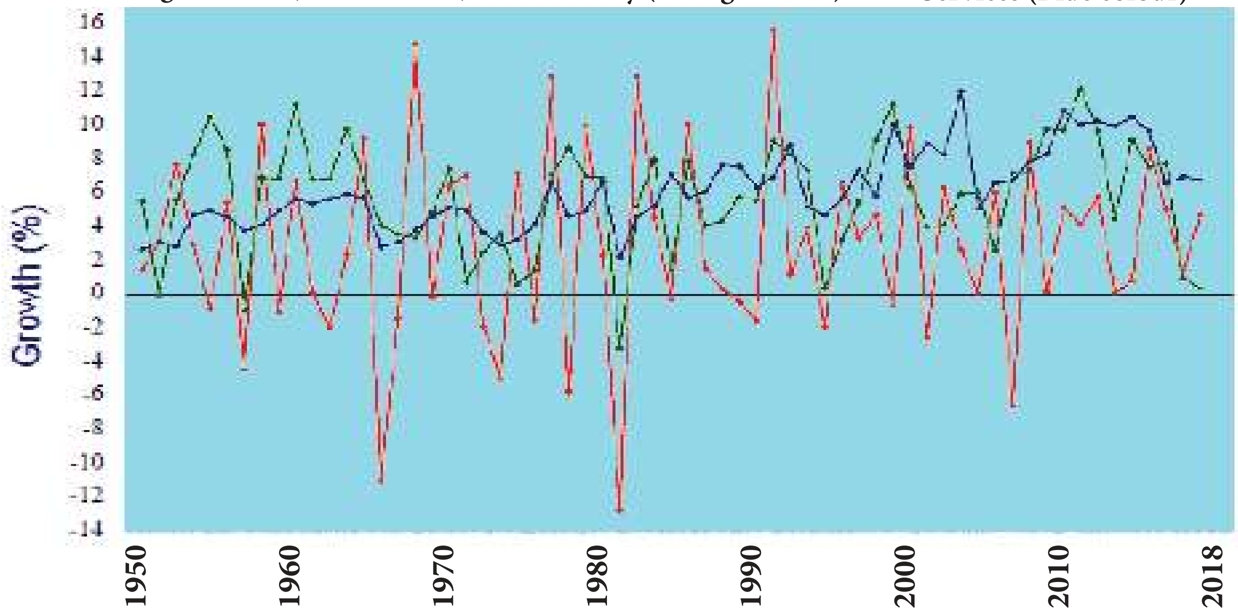
Sector - wise GDP Growth of India (1950-2018)

Agriculture (Green colour) **Industry (Orange colour)** **Services (Blue colour)**



Source: Statistics times.com.

Note: The chart Diagram shows that Sector-wise contribution in GDP of India for the year 1950-2018

Sector-wise contribution in GDP of India

India is 2nd largest producer of agricultural products. India accounts for 7.39 percent of total global agricultural output.

In Industrial sector, India's world rank is 6 and in Service sector, India's world rank is 8. Contribution of Agriculture sector in Indian economy is much higher than world's average (6.4%). Contribution of Industry and Services sector is lower than world's average 30% for Industry sector and 63% for Services sector.

> **Gross value added (GVA)** is a measure of the value of goods and services produced by an industry in a given area of the economy.
>
> GVA = GDP + subsidies - (direct, sales) taxes.

1.5 Economic Growth and Development

As per the economist Amartya Sen, economic growth is one aspect of economic development. Also, United Nation see it like this "Economic development focuses not only on man's materialistic need but it focuses on overall development or rise in its living standards.

Economic Growth

The key parameters of economic growth in any economy are its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and gross national product which helps in measuring the actual size of an economy.

Economic Development

Economic development projects a broader picture of an economy which takes into account an increase in production level or output of an

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economy along with an improvement in the living standard of its citizens. It focuses more on socioeconomic factors rather than the just quantitative increase in production. Economic development is a qualitative measure which measures improvement in technology, labour reforms, rising living standards, broader institutional changes in an economy.

Human development Index (HDI) is apt tool to measure the real development in an economy.

1.6 Developmental Path based on GDP andEmployment

In the development path of India, it first undertook the policy of closed trade. This was to give a thrust to domestic industries and reduce dependence on foreign products and companies.Trade and interaction with the outside world remained limited. This outlook continued till 1991 when India finally decided to open its borders to free trade and liberalized its economy by allowing foreign companies to enter the Indian economy.

A thrust was given to employment generation under the Five Year plans. This was to make up for a rising population and lacking jobs to absorb the increased workforce size. Rural development was also given importance in India, for the important constituent it was of the Indian landscape.

Poverty alleviation came as a corollary of rural development and a part of the development path of India. India inherited a poverty-stricken economy from the British rule, which had destroyed its resource base completely.

Differences between Economic Growth and Economic Development

Comparison between Economic Growth and Economic Development	Economic Growth	Economic Development
Definition / Meaning	It is the positive quantitative change in the output of an economy in a particular time period	It considers the rise in the output in an economy along with the advancement of HDI index which considers a rise in living standards, advancement in technology and overall happiness index of a nation.
Concept	Economic growth is the "Narrower" concept	Economic development is the "Broader" concept
Nature of Approach	Quantitative in nature	Qualitative in nature
Scope	Rise in parameters like GDP, GNP, FDI,FII etc.	Rise in life expectancy rate, infant, improvement in literacy rate, infant mortality rate and poverty rate etc.
Term / Tenure	Short term in nature	Long-term in nature
Applicability	Developed nation	Developing economies
Measurement Techniques	Increase in national income	Increase in real national income i.e. per capita income
Frequency of Occurrence	In a certain period of time	Continuous process
Government Aid	It is an automatic process so may not require government support/aid or intervention	Highly dependent on government intervention as it includes widespread policies changes so without government intervention it is not possible

The public sector was given significant importance, Private companies and industries were subject to strict regulations and standards. It was believed that the government was the sole protector of the people and would work towards social welfare.

India has sustained rapid growth of GDP for most of the last two decades leading to rising per capita incomes and a reduction in absolute poverty. Per capita incomes have doubled in 12 years. In Per capita income, placing India comes just inside the Middle Income Country category.

Life expectancy at birth is 65 years and 44% of children under 5 are malnourished. The literacy rate for the population aged 15 years and above is only 63% compared to a 71% figure for lower middle income countries.

India has followed a different path of development from many other countries.

Factors supporting Indian development

A fast-growing population of working age is an important factor. There are 700 million Indians under the age of 35 and the demographics look good for Indian growth in the next twenty years at least. India is experiencing demographic transition that has increased the share of the working-age population from 58 percent to 64 percent over the last two decades.

India has a strong legal system and many English-language speakers. This has been a key to attracting inward investment from companies such as those specialising in Information Technology. For example witness the rapid emergence of Bangalore as a hub for global software businesses. External economies of scale have deepened their competitive advantages in many related industries.

Human Development Index

In 1990 Mahbub ul Haq, a Pakistani Economist at the United Nations, introduced the Human Development Index (HDI). The HDI is a composite index of life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate and standard of living measured as a logarithmic function of GDP, adjusted to purchasing power parity.

India climbed one spot to 130 out of 189 countries in the latest human development rankings released today by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Between 1990 and 2017, India's HDI value incresed from 0.427 to 0.640, an increase of nearly 50 percent – and an indicator of the country's remarkable achievement in lifting millions of people out of poverty.

1.7 Growth of GDP and Economic Policies

Many Economic Policies have been framed by the Government of India since independence for increasing rate of economic growth and economic development. The important economic policies are

1. Agriculture policy

Agricultural policy is the set of government decisions and actions relating to domestic agriculture and imports of foreign agricultural products. Some over arching themes include risk management and adjustment, economic stability , natural resources and environmental sustainability research and development, and market access for domestic commodities.

Some Agricultural policies are Price policy, land reform policy, Green Revolution, Irrigation policy, Food policy, Agricultural Labour Policy and Co-operative policy.

2. Industrial Policy

Industrial development is a very important aspect of any economy. It creates employment, promotes research and development, leads to modernization and ultimately makes the

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Gross National Happiness (GNH)

The term Gross National Happiness was coined in 1972 during an interview by a British journalist for the Financial Times at Bombay airport when the then king of Bhutan, Jigme Singye Wangchuck, said "Gross National Happiness is more important than Gross National Product.

In 2011, The UN General Assembly passed Resolution "Happiness: towards a holistic approach to development" urging member nations to follow the example of Bhutan and measure happiness and well-being and calling happiness a "fundamental human goal."

The four pillars of GNH's are

1. sustainable and equitable socio-economic development
2. environmental conservation
3. preservation and promotion of culture
4. good governance.

The nine domains of GNH are psychological well-being, health, time use, education, cultural diversity and resilience, good governance, community vitality, ecological diversity and resilience, and living standards.

economy self-sufficient. In fact, industrial development even boosts other sectors of the economy like the agricultural sector (new farming technology) and the service sector. It is also closely related to the development of trade.

Several industrial policies have been enacted. Since 1948, Industrial policy on large scale industries Eg. Textile Industry policy, Sugar Industry policy, Price policy of industrial growth, Small scale industrial policy and Industrial Labour policy.

3. New Economic Policy

The economy of India had undergone policy in the beginning of the 1990s. This new model of economic reforms is commonly known as the LPG known as Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation. These economic reforms had influenced the overall economic growth of the country in a significant manner.

SUMMARY

- GDP is the value of all goods and services produced within an economy in a financial year.
- Indian economy is classified in three sectors Agriculture and allied Industry and Service
- Depreciation: The Monetary value of an asset decreases over time due to use, wear and tear or obsolescence
- Income: The amount of monetary or other returns, either earned or unearned, accruing over a period of time.
- Gross Value Added (GVA): The measure of the value of goods and services produced in an area, industry or sector of an economy.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Depreciation	The process of lossing value	தேய்மானம்
Intermediate	Being between two other related things	இடைநிலை
Market Price	A price that is likely to be paid for something	சந்தை விலை

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Final Goods	A consumer good or final good is any commodity that is produced or consumed by the consumer to satisfy current wants or needs	இறுதி பொருட்கள்
Composition	the nature of something's ingredients or constituents; the way in which a whole or mixture is made up	கலவை
Contribution	a gift or payment to a common fund or collection.	பங்களிப்பு
Staggering	continue in existence or operation uncertainly or precariously.	தடுமாற்றத்தினை

EVALUATION

I Choose the correct answer

1. GNP equals
   a) NNP adjusted for inflation
   b) GDP adjusted for inflation
   c) GDP plus net property income from abroad
   d) NNP plus net property income or abroad

2. National Income is a measure of
   a) Total value of money
   b) Total value of producer goods
   c) Total value of consumption goods
   d) Total value of goods and services

3. Primary sector consist of
   a) Agriculture b) Automobiles
   c) Trade d) Banking

4. ______ approach is the value added by each intermediate good is summed to estimate the value of the final good.
   a) Expenditure approach
   b) Value added approach
   c) income approach
   d) National Income

5. Gross value added at current prices for services sector is estimated at ______ lakh crore in 2018-19.
   a) 91.06 b) 92.26 c) 80.07 d) 98.29

6. India is ______ larger producer in agricultural product.
   a) 1st b) 3rd c) 4th d) 2nd

7. India's life expectancy at birth is ______ years.
   a) 65 b) 60 c) 70 d) 55

8. Which one is a trade policy?.
   a) irrigation policy
   b) import and export policy
   c) land-reform policy
   d) wage policy

II Fill in the blanks

1. _____ is the primary sector in India.
2. GDP is the indicator of _____ economy.
3. Secondary sector otherwise called as _____.

III Match the following

1.	Electricity/ Gas and Water	– National Income / Population
2.	Price policy	– Gross Domestic Product
3.	GST	– Industry Sector
4.	Per capita income	– Agriculture
5.	C + I + G + (X-M)	– Tax on goods and service

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IV Give short answer

1. Define National income.
2. What is meant by Gross domestic product?
3. Write the importance of Gross domestic product.
4. What is per capita income?.
5. Define the value added approach with example.
6. Write the name of ecnomic policies in India.
7. Write a short note
   1) Gross National Happiness(GNH)
   2) Human Development Index(HDI)

V Write in detail answer

1. Briefly explain various terms associated with measuring of national income.
2. What are the methods of calculating Gross Domestic Product? and explain its.
3. Write any five differences between the growth and development.
4. Explain the following the economic policies
   1.Agricultural Policy
   2.Industrial policy
   3.New ecnomic policy

VI Activity and Project

1. Students are collect the Gross Domestic Product datas of Tamilnadu and compare the other state of Karnataka and Kerala's GDP.
2. Students are collect the details of Employment growth of Tamilnadu.

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2. Ramesh singh Indian economy (10th Edition).
3. Ministry of statistics and implementation planning commission. Government of india.

INTERNET RESOURCES

1. http://en.wikipedia.org
2. http://www.statisticstimes.com

ICT CORNER

Gross Domestic Product and its Growth: an Introduction

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below (or) Scan the QR Code.
- Click on 'Real GDP Growth' and select 'India' in Right side menu
- Drag the timeline button to see the GDP Growth of India

Website URL:

https://www.imf.org/external/datamapper/datasets/WEO/1

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Unit - 2

Globalization and Trade

Learning Objectives

- To know the meaning and history of globalization
- To know the trade and traders in South India historical perspective
- To know the evolution of growth of MNC
- To know the fair trade practices and WTO
- To understand the impact and challenges of globalization

Introduction

Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization (LPG) have become a much talked of subjects among politicians, economists and businessmen in modern days.

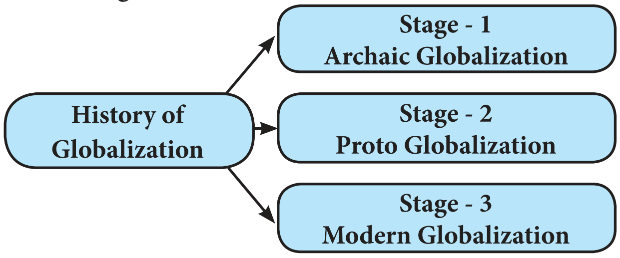
2.1 Globalization

Globalization is the integration of a country with the world economy. Basically, globalization signifies a process of internationalization plus liberalization.

Globalization

2.2 History of Globalization

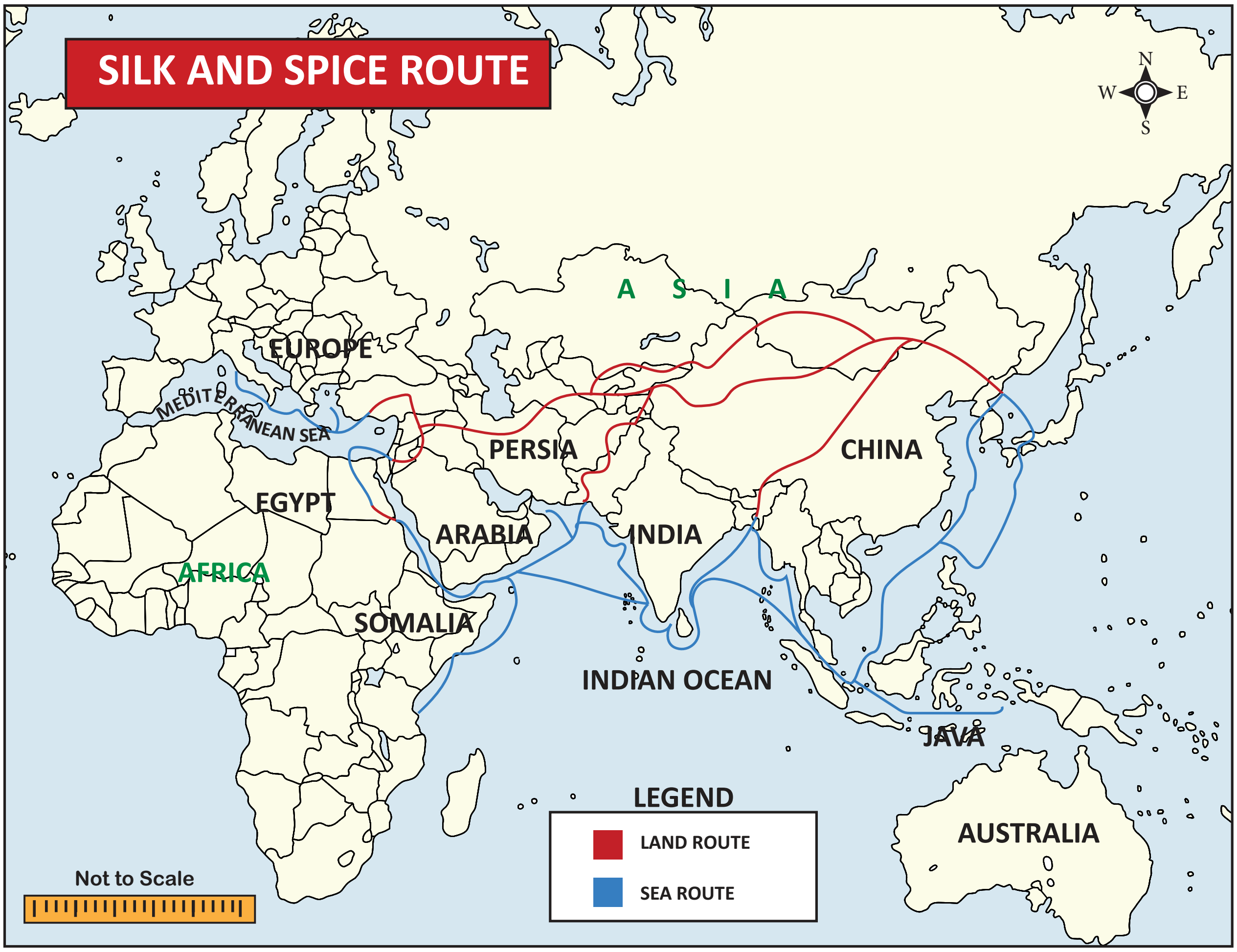
The term of 'Globalization' was introduced by Pro. Theodore Levitt. The historical backround of globalization can be discussed on three stages.



Archaic Globalization

Andre Gunder Frank argued that a form of globalization has been in existence since the rise of trade links between Sumer and Indus valley civilization in the third millennium BC (BCE). An early form of globalized economics and culture, known as Archaic globalization existed during the Hellenistic Age. An early form of globalization in the trade link between the Roman Empire, Parthian Empire and the Han Dynasty made the commercial links between these powers inspired the development of the Silk Road.

The Islamic Age was also an important early stage of globalization. The advent of the Mongol Empire, though destabilizing to the commercial



Silk Route and Spice Route

centers of the Middle East and China, greatly facilitated travel along the Silk Road. These Pre-modern phase of global exchange are sometimes known as archaic globalization.

Proto Globalization

The next phase is known as proto - globalization. It was charterized by the rise of maritime European empires, in the 16th and 17th centuries, first the Portugues and Spanish Empires, and Dutch and British empires. In the 17th century, globalization became private business phenomenon like British East India Company described as the first multinational company.

Modern Globalization

The 19th century witnessed the advent of globalization approaching its modern form. Between the globalization in the 19th and in he 20th century there are significant differences. There are two main points one is the global trade in his centuries as well as the capital, investment and the economy and another one is the global trade in the 20th century shows a higher share of trade in merchant production, a growth of the trade in services and the rise of production and trade by multinational firms.

2.3 Trade and Traders in South India historical perspective

Southern Indian trade guilds were formed by merchants in order to organize and expand their trading activities. Trade guilds become channels through which Indian culture was exported to other lands.

Early Traders

In the year 1053 AD (CE) the Kalinga traders (Modern Odisha) brought red colored stone decorative objects for trade and also cotton textile to Southeast Asia at an early date.

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European Traders

This was due to the trading activities of the various European companies which came to India during this period. The discovery of a new all-sea route from Europe to India Via cape of Good Hope by Vasco do Gama had for reaching repercussions on the civilized world.

The Portuguese

The Portuguese under the leadership of Vasco da Gama landed at Calicut on May, 1498. Profits of goods brought by Vasco do Gama to Portugal were to 60 times cost of the entire expedition to India. The second trip of Vasco da Gama in 1502 led to the establishment of trading station at Calicut Cochin and Cannanore. Cochin was the early capital of the Portuguese in India.

The Dutch

Dutch undertook several voyages from 1596 and formed the Dutch East India company (VOC) I 1602. In 1605, Admiral van der Hagen established Dutch Factory at Masulipatnam and Pettapoli (Nizamapatanam), Devanampatinam. In 1610, upon negotiating with the king of Chandragiri, found another facatory at Pulicut. Other commodities exported by the Dutch were indigo, and Bengal raw silk. Pulicut was the headquarters of the Dutch in India.

The British

On 31st December, 1600, Queen Elizabeth granted charter to The East India Company. On the south-eastern coast, the English established at Masulipatnam in 1611 and near Pulical in 1626. The Sultan of Golconda granted the English the "Golden Fireman" in 1632 by which they were allowed to trade freely in their "Kingdom Ports". In 1639, built a fortified factory in Madras which known as Fort St.George, which soon displaced Masulipatnam as headquarters of the English settlement on the coromandel coast.

The Danes

The Danes formed an East India company and arrive in India in 1616. The Danish settlements were established at Tranguebar (in Tamil nadu) in 1620 which was the headquarters of Danes in India. They failed to strengthen themselves, in India and in 1845 were forced to sell all their India settlements to the British.

The French

The first French factory in India was established in 1668 by obtaining permission from the Sultan of Golconda. In 1693, the Dutch captured Pondicherry but was handed back to the French. In 1701, Pondicherry was the headquarters of the French.

2.4 Globalization in India

In India the period after 1980-81 was marked by severe balance of payment difficulties mainly due to hike in oil price and Gulf war in 1990-91 and hostilities in West Asia.

When the new government took over in June 1991. India had unprecedented balance of payment crisis.

With the downgrading of India's credit rating by some international agencies, there was heavy flight of capital out of India.

Since India lost its credit worthiness in the international market, the government mortgaged 40 tons of gold to the Bank of England. Under these circumstances, the government for 1991-92 presented its budget in July 1991 with a series of policy changes which underlined globalization, liberalization and privatization. This has come to be called as India's new economic policy. This policies were strengthened when India signed the Dunkel Draft in 1994.

Reforms made to adopt Globalization:-
(New Economic policy in India)

1. Abolition of Industrial licensing, except for a few industries.
2. Reduction in the number of industries reserved for public sector.
3. Fixation of a realistic exchange rate of rupee to exchange exports of Indian goods.

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4. Foreign private sector by making rupee convertible on trade, on current account and by reducing import duties.

5. Foreign exchanges regulations were suitably amended

6. The Statutory Liquidity Ratio (SLR) was reduced to increase lending by RBI.

2.5 Multi National Corporation (MNC)

Multi National Corporation is a Corporate organization which owns or controls production of goods or services in at least one country other than its home country.

Evolution of MNC

Like, the East India Company, which came to India as a trading company and then its net throughout the country to become politically dominant, these multinationals first start their activities in extractive industries or control raw materials in the host countries during 1920s and then slowly entered. In to the manufacturing and service sectors after 1950s. Most of the MNC's at present belong to the four major exporting countries viz., USA, UK, France, Germany. However, the largest is American. 11 of the 15 largest multinationals are Americans.

Growth of MNCs in India

A common form of MNC Participation in Indian industry is through entering into cooperation with Indian industrialist. Trends of liberalization in the 1980s gave a substantial spurt to foreign collaborations. This would be clear from the fact that of the total 12,760 foreign collaboration agreements signed between 1948-1988. As a result of liberalized foreign investment policy (FIP) announced in 1991 there has a further spurt of foreign collaborations and increase flow of foreign direct investment.

MNC Company

Reasons for the growth MNC

1. Expansion of Market territory.

As the operations of large sized firm expand, it seeks more and more extension of its activates beyond the physical boundaries of the country in which it is in corporate.

2. Marketing superiorities:

A multinational firm enjoys a number of marketing superiorities over the national firms. It enjoys market reputation and faces less difficulty in selling its products and it adopt more effective advertising and sales promotion techniques.

3. Financial Superiorities

It has financial resources and high level of funds utilization. It has easier access of external capital markets. Because of its international reputation it is able to raise more international resources.

Top 10 Largest Multinational Companies in India 2018	
Sony Corporation	Nettle
Hew left Packard (HP)	Procter & Gamble
Tata Group	City Group
Microsoft Corporation	Pepsi Company
IBM	The Coca-Cola Company

4. Technological superiorities:

The main reason why MNCs have been encouraged by the underdeveloped countries to participate in their industrial development is on

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Indian Multi National Companies			
Company	**Headquarter**	**Type of Industry**	**Countries of operating**
Hero Motocorp	New Delhi	Automobile	Columbia, Bangladesh, Africa
Bajaj	Pune	Automobile	United Arab Emirates(UAE), Bangladesh
TVS	Chennai	Automobile	Brazil,Chile,Colombia, Mexico,Peru
State Bank of India	Mumbai	Banking	Australia,Bangaladesh, Belgium
Bharti Airtel	New Delhi	Communication	South Asia, Africa

account of the technological superiorities which these firms posses as compared to national companies.

5. Product innovations:

MNCs have research and development engaged in the task of developing new products and superior designs of existing products.

Advantages of MNC

1. Producing the same quality of goods at lower cost and without transaction cost
2. MNC reduce prices and increase the Purchasing power of consumers world wide
3. A MNC is able to take advantage of tax variation.
4. Spurring job growth in the local economies

Disadvantages of MNC

1. They are a way for the corporations to develop a monopoly (for certain products)
2. They are also a detrimental effect on the environment.
3. The introduction of MNC in to a host country's economy may also lead to the downfall of smaller, local business.
4. MNC breach ethical standards, accusing them of evading ethical laws and leveraging their business agenda with capital.

2.6 Fair Trade Practices and World Trade Organization

Fair Trade is a way of doing business that ultimately aims to keep small farmers an active part of the world market place, and aims to empower consumer to make purchases that support their values.

- Raising and stabilizing the incomes of small-Scale farmers, farm workers and artisans.
- More equitably distributing the economic gains, opportunities and risks associated with the production and sale of these goods.
- Increasing the organizational and commercial capacities of producer groups.
- Promoting labor rights and the right workers to organize.
- Promoting safe and sustainable farming methods and working conditions.

Fair trade is about better prices, decent working conditions and fair terms of trade for farmers and workers.

Principles of Fair trade Organization

- Creating Opportunities for Economically Disadvantaged producers.
- Transparency and Accountability .

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- Fair Trading Practices and Payment of a Fair Price.
- Ensuring no child Labour and Forced Labour.
- Commitment to Non Discrimination, Gender Equity and freedom of association.
- Providing Capacity Building and Promoting Fair Building.
- Respect for the Environment.

GATT: (General Agreement onTrade and Tariffs)

GATT was signed by 23 countries in 1947. India was one of the founder members of GATT. The Director General of GATT, Arthur Dunkel, came up with a Drafft Final Act, known as Dunke Draft was approved and signed. GATT's primary purpose was to increase International Trade by reducing various tariffs, quotas and subsidies while maintaining meaningful regulations.

Rounds of GATT

- First in Geneva (Switzerland) (1947)
- Second in Annecy (France) in 1949
- Third in Torquay (UK) in 1950 – 51
- Fourth, fifth, and Sixth in Geneva (Switzerland) in 1956, 1960-61, 1964 -67.
- Seventh in Tokyo (Japan) in 1973 – 79
- Eighth and final round at Punta del Este (Uruguay) in 1986 – 1994, known as 'Uruguay Round'.

World Trade Organization (WTO)

The signing of the Final Act of the Uruguay Round by member nations of GATT in April 1994 paved the way for setting up of the WTO. An agreement to this effect was signed by 104 members. The WTO Agreement came into force from January 1, 1995.

World Trade Organization(WTO):

Head Quarter: Geneva, Switzerland

Purpose: Regulation, International trade

Members of WTO: Director General, Four Deputy Director General, and other 600 Official Staff from around 80 member countries.

World Trade Organization(WTO)

Objectives of W.T.O

- To set and enforce rules for international trade.
- To provide a forum for negotiating and monitoring further trade liberalization.
- To resolve trade disputes.
- Introduction at the sustainable development and environment can go together.
- To ensure that developing countries, secure a better share of growth in world Trade.
- To resolve trade disputes.
- To increase the transparency of decision making processes.
- Introduction sustainable development the development and environment can go together.
- To ensure full employment and broad increase in effective demand.

Trade Related aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPs)

Intellectual Property Rights may be defined as "Information with a commercial Value" Under TRIPs Patent shall be available for any invention whether product or process in all fields of industrial technologies. TRIPS agreement covers seven areas of intellectual's property rights.

2.7 Impact and Challenges of Globalization

Positive Impact

- A better economy introduces rapid development of the capital market.
- Standard of living has increased.

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- Globalization rapidly increase better trade so that more people are employed.
- Introduced new technologies and new scientific research patterns.
- Globalization increasing the GDP of a country.
- It helps to increase in free flow of goods and also to increase Foreign Direct Investment.

Negative Impact

- Too much flow of capital amongst countries, introduces unfair and immoral distributors of Income.
- Another fear is losing national integrity. Because of too much exchange of trade, independent domestic policies are lost.
- Rapid growth of the economy has required a major infrastructure and resource extraction. This increases negative ecological and Social costs.
- Rapidly increases in exploitation of natural resources to earn foreign exchange.
- Environmental standards and regulations have been relaxed.

Challenges of Globalization

- The benefits of globalization extend to all countries that will not happen automatically.
- The fear that globalization leads to instability in the developing world.
- The industrial world that increased global competition will lead in race to the bottom in wages, labour right, and employment practice.
- It leads to global inbalance.
- Globalization has led to an increase in activities such as child labor and slavery.
- People started consuming more junk food. This caused, the degradation of health and spread of diseases.
- Globalization has led to environmental degradation.

SUMMARY

- Globalization is the integration of country with the world economy.
- The three stages of Globalization : • Archiac Globalization • Proto Globalization • Modern Globalization.
- LPG – Liberalization, Privatization, and Globalization
- Multi National Company is a corporate organization which owns or control production of goods and services in at least one country to other than its home country.
- MNC otherwise called Transnational Company(TNC) and Multinational Enterprises(MNE).
- GATT was signed by 23 countries in 1947. India was one of the founder members of GATT.

A-Z GLOSSARY

globalization	the process by which businesses or other organizations develop international influence or start operating on an international scale.	உலகமயமாக்கல்
archaic	of an early period of art or culture, especially the 7th–6th centuries BC in Greece.	தொன்மையான
evolution	the gradual development of something	பரிணாம வளர்ச்சி
mortgaged	expose to future risk or constraint for the sake of immediate advantage.	அடமானம் வைக்கப்பட்ட
spurt	cause to gush out suddenly.	திடீர்
detrimental	tending to cause harm	சீரழிவான
thriving	prosperous and growing; flourishing.	வெற்றிகரமான

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EVALUATION

I Choose the correct answer

1. Who is the head of the World Trade Organisation (WTO)
   a) Ministerial conference
   b) Director General
   c) Deputy Director General
   d) None of these
2. Colonial advent in India
   a) Portuguese, Dutch, English, Danish, French
   b) Dutch, English, Danish , French
   c) Portuguese , Danish, Dutch, French, English
   d) Danish, Portuguese, French, English, Dutch
3. GATT's first round held in
   a) Tokyo b) Uruguay
   c) Torquay d) Geneva
4. India signed the Dunkel proposal in
   a) 1984 b) 1976 c) 1950 d) 1994
5. who granted the English "golden Fireman" in 1632
   a) Jahangir b) Sultan of Golconda
   c) Akbar d) Aurangzeb
6. Foreign Investment policy (FIP) announced in
   a) June 1991 b) July 1991
   c) July- Aug-1991 d) Aug 1991

II Fill in the Blanks

1. A better economy introduce rapid development of the ____________.
2. WTO agreement came into force from ____________.
3. The term globalization invented by ____________.

III Match the following

1.	Multination corporation in India	-	1947
2.	MNC	-	enforce international trade
3.	GATT	-	Minimize cost of production
4.	WTO	-	Infosis

IV Give Short Answers

1. What is globalization?
2. Write the types of globalization.
3. Write short note on Multinational corporation.
4. What are the reforms made to adopt globalization?
5. What is Fair trade ?
6. Write any two principles of Fair Trade Practices.
7. Write any two positive impact of Globalization.

V Brief Answer

1. Briefly explain the advantages and disadvantages of MNC.
2. Write about the World Trade Organisation.
3. Write the challenges of Globalization.

VI Activity and Projects

1. Teacher and students are discuss about the globalization.
2. Students are collect the images regarded to the globalization and make the album. (south Indian trade and traders images, and silk route map, spice route map, and kalinga trade map, etc)
3. Students are collect the picture of various Multinational corporation companies in India and its products pictures.

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2. Dutt "Indian Economy"
3. History of Tamil Nadu [Social and Culture]
4. S.K. Misra and V.K. Puri "Indian Economy"

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Unit - 3

Food Security and Nutrition

Learning Objectives

- To study about the meaning, definition of food security
- To know about the availability and access to food grains
- To understand about the purchasing power and agricultural policy
- To gain knowledge about the multi-dimensional nature of poverty
- To study about nutrition and health status and policies in Tamil Nadu

Introduction

Food is defined as any substance that people eat and drink to maintain life and growth. Food security would denote a person's ability to eat enough, stay active and lead a healthy life.

3.1 Food Security

The United Nation's Food and Agriculture Organisation defines food security as follows:

"Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life." (FAO, 2009)

While this comprehensive definition highlights the need for food to be nutritious, in addition to that there are certain other aspects that are required to achieve nutrition security. According to eminent agricultural scientist Dr.M.S.Swaminathan, nutrition security is:

"physical, economic and social access to a balanced diet, safe drinking water, environmental hygiene, primary health care and primary education".

Basic components of food and nutrition security

The three basic components of food and nutrition security. They are availability, access and absorption:

1. **Availability of food** is physical availability of food stocks in desired quantities, which is a function of domestic production, changes in stocks and imports;
2. **Access to food** is primarily a matter of purchasing power and is therefore closely linked with the capabilities and employment opportunities to earn. Capabilities and opportunities in turn are related to one's access to assets and education.
3. **Absorption** of food is the ability to biologically utilise the food consumed.

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3.2 Availability and Access to Food Grains

Thus food security for people in a country is not only dependent on the quantum of food available but also on the ability of people to purchase/access food and to stay in appropriate healthy environment. Just as other developmental issues, food security of people is also related to a country's overall development process. After Independence, India chose to adopt a planned developmental model.

Food Grains

After an initial focus on agriculture, industrialisation was given priority. The recurrent droughts experienced by India pushed her to be dependent on imports of food grains. However, the available foreign exchange reserve could not permit open market purchases and import of grains. India had to plead for food grains from richer countries at concessional rates. United States of America extended assistance through its Public Law 480 (PL 480) scheme to India during early 1960s.

A growing country with a massive population was perceived to be a potential candidate for revolution. The American administration and philanthropic organisations like Ford Foundation formulated a plan to increase food production in the country by introducing High Yielding Varieties (HYV) of wheat and rice. This programme was implemented in select districts where irrigation was assured. The results were promising and the programme was extended to cover a larger number of districts.

Thus, Green Revolution was born in the country paving way for self-sufficiency in food grain production. Increased food grain production was made possible by an increase area cultivated with HYV of rice and wheat as also an increase in the yield of these major cereal crops. Area under food grains was a little more than 98 million hectares during early 1950s. The country was producing just 54 million tonnes of food grains then with an average yield of food grains of 547 kg per hectare. The food situation has steadily improved over a period of 65 years. Area under foodgrain cultivation has grown to 122 million hectares, with an increase of five-fold increase in food grain production. Yield of food grains has increased four-fold between the time of independence and at present.

This growth in food grain production was made possible by the HYV programme, which was implemented as a package. Apart from introducing fertiliser-responsive high-yielding varieties of rice and wheat, it ensured the availability of subsidised chemical fertilisers for the farmers. Cheaper farm credit was disbursed to farmers through co-operative banks and societies. Minimum support price (MSP) for the crops were announced at the beginning of the season and the state procured the harvested grains through the Food Corporation of India (FCI). The FCI had built huge storage godowns and built buffer stocks of food grain during the harvest season to be distributed all through the year.

The rapid increase in food grain production was accompanied by appropriate technological interventions in the dairy, poultry and fisheries sectors. As a result, the milk production in the country witnessed an eight-fold increase, egg production grew 40-fold and fish production by 13-fold between

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the time of Independence and mid-2000s. However, India could not succeed in attaining self-sufficiency in the production of pulses and oil seeds. Therefore, India depends on imports to meet the requirements of people.

Minimum Support Price

Minimum Support Price is a price fixed by an expert group for a particular crop by considering various costs involved in the cultivation of that crop. After announcing the MSP, the State will open procurement centres in places where these crops are widely grown. However, the farmers are free to sell in the open market if they get a better price for their crop produce. On the other hand, if the open market price is lower than the MSP, the farmers would get an assured price (the MSP) by selling their produce to the FCI.

Public Distribution System

Tamil Nadu has adopted an 'Universal' PDS, the rest of the states in India had a 'Targeted' PDS. Under universal PDS all the family ration card holders are entitled to the supplies from PDS. In the targeted PDS, the beneficiaries are identified based on certain criteria and given their entitlements, leaving out the rest. Both the Union and the State governments subsidised the supplies distributed through PDS. The level and quantum of subsidy also varied across states.

Public Distribution System

Subsequently, the National Food Security Act (NFSA) was passed by the Indian parliament in 2013. The NFSA covers 50% of urban households and 75% of the rural households. These households are known as priority households identified based on a set of criteria.

National Food Security Act in Tamil Nadu

On 1 November 2016, National Food Security Act was implemented in Tamil Nadu after holding out for three years.

Role of Consumer Cooperatives in Food Security

Consumer cooperatives play an important role in the supply of quality goods at responsible rates to common people. There is a three-tier structure of consumer cooperative societies in India. They are primary consumer cooperative societies. Central consumer cooperative stores and state level consumer federations. More than 50,000 village level societies are engaged in the distribution of consumer goods in rural areas. This scheme is playing an important role in food security in India. For example out of all fair price shops running in Tamil Nadu, around 94% are being run by cooperatives.

Buffer Stock

The Food Corporation of India (FCI) purchases wheat and rice from the farmers in states where there is surplus production. The farmers are paid a pre-announced price for their crops. This price is called Minimum Support Price (MSP). The MSP is declared by the government every year before the sowing season to provide incentives to farmers for raising the production of these crops. The purchased foodgrains are stored in granaries.

Buffer Stock

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3.3 Purchasing Power

Purchasing power is the value of a currency expressed in terms of the amount of goods or services that one unit of money can buy. Price increases purchasing power declines and vice versa.

Factors affecting Purchasing Power

1. Over population

The population growth rate in India is high as 1.7 per 1000. Large population leads to increasing demand, but supply was not equal to the demand. So, the normal price level will be going an higher. So it affect purchasing power, especially in rural population.

2. Increasing prices of essential goods

Even though there has been a constant growth in the GDP and growth opportunities in the Indian economy, there have been steady increase in the prices of essential goods. The continuous rise in the prices erodes the purchasing power and adversely affect the poor people.

3. Demand for goods

When demand for goods increases, the price of goods increases then the purchasing power is affected.

4. Price of goods affect the value of currency

When the price increases the purchasing power decreases and finally the value of currency decreases.

5. Production and supply of goods

The production and supply of goods decline, the price of goods increases, then the purchasing power is affected.

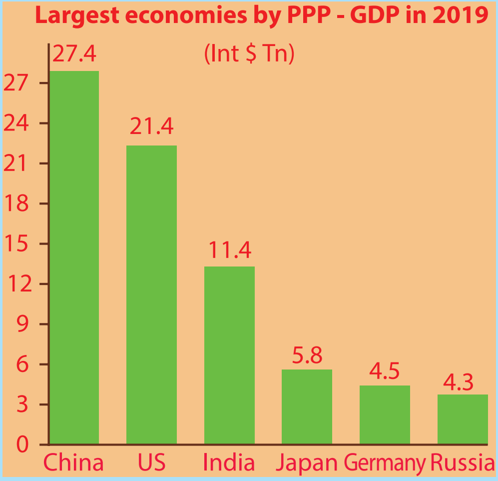
6. Poverty and inequality

There exists a huge economic disparity in the Indian economy. The proportion of income and assets owned by top 10% of Indian goes on increasing. This has led to an increase in the poverty level in the society. Generally purchasing power is affected by poverty and unequal distribution of wealth also.

Purchasing Power Parity (PPP)

A concept related to purchasing power is purchasing price parity (PPP). PPP is an economic theory that estimates the amount that needs to be adjusted to the price of an item.

PPP can be used to compare countries income levels and other relevant economic data concerning the cost of living, or possible rates of inflation and deflation. Recently, India became the third largest economy in terms of PPP. China became the largest economy, pushing the US to the second position.



3.4 Agricultural Policy in India

The new agricultural policy based on export of agricultural goods was announced by the Central Government in 2018. This policy states that the government has decided to remove export restrictions on most organic and processed agricultural products.

Agricultural policy of a country is mostly designed by the Government for raising agricultural production and productivity and also for raising the level of income and standard of living of farmers within a definite time frame. This policy is formulated for allround and comprehensive development of the agricultural sector.

The following are some of the important objectives of india's agricultural policy

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1. Raising the productivity of inputs

One of the important objectives of India's agricultural policy is to improve the productivity of inputs so purchased like, HYV seeds, fertilisers, pesticides, irrigation projects etc.

2. Raising value-added per hectare

Agricultural policy is to increase per hectare value-added by raising the productivity of agriculture in general and productivity of small and marginal holding in particular.

3. Protecting the interests of poor farmers

Agricultural policy is proposed to protect the interests of poor and marginal farmers by abolishing intermediaries through land reforms, expanding institutional credit support to poor farmers etc.

4. Modernising agricultural sector

Here the policy support includes the introduction of modern technology in agricultural operations and application of improved agricultural inputs like HYV seeds, fertilizers etc.

5. Environmental degradation

Agricultural policy of India has set another objective to check environmental degradation of natural base of Indian agriculture.

6. Removing bureaucratic obstacles

The policy has set another objective to remove bureaucratic obstacles on the farmers' co-operative societies and self-help institutions so that they can work independently.

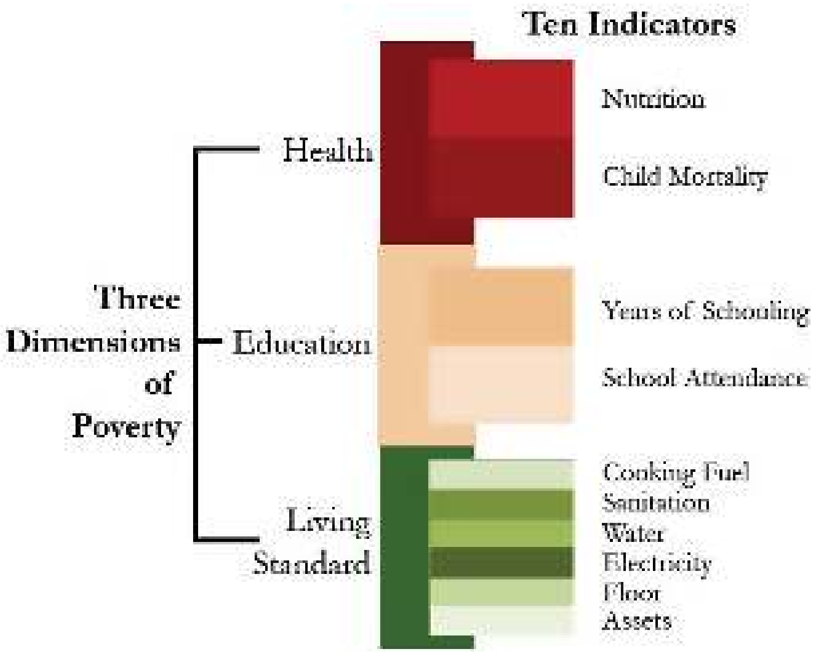
3.5 Multi-dimensional Nature of Poverty

The Multi-dimensional Poverty Index (MPI) was launched by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the Oxford Poverty Human Development Initiative (OPHI) in 2010. The basic philosophy and significance of MPI is that it is based on the idea that poverty is not unidimensional, and that it is rather multi-dimensional.

Multi-dimensional poverty is made up of several factors that constitute poor people's experience of deprivation such as health, education, living standards, income, disempowerment, quality of work and threat from violence.

Multi-dimensional Poverty Index 2018 Report in Tamil Nadu

Over the last decades, Tamil Nadu has made a significant progress in poverty reduction. The districts in Tamil Nadu are classified into three categories, namely high-poverty districts (more than 40% of the population living below poverty



Multi-Dimensional Poverty Index

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line), moderately poor districts (30% to 40%) and low level poverty districts (below 30%).

After 1994, poverty has declined steadily in both rural and urban areas of Tamil Nadu and the state has a smaller share of India's poor relative to its population. After 2005, the poverty reduction in this state has been faster than in many other states in India. Tamil Nadu leads in the poverty alleviation programmes during 2014–2017. Government of India is implementing many policies and programmes to eradicate poverty.

These policies and programmes, if continued, will completely eradicate the poverty in the state. In future, Tamil Nadu can become a model of development in india.

Top and Bottom MPI districts in Tamil Nadu

Top 5 Districts	Bottom 5 Districts
Kancheepuram	Dharmapuri
Chennai	Perambalur
Cuddalore	Ramanathapuram
Coimbatore	Virudhunagar
Nagapattinam	Ariyalur

3.6 Nutrition and Health Status

Status of Nutrition

We noted earlier that food security includes nutrition security too. Though our country has reached self-sufficiency in food production, the nutrition status of the population has not seen corresponding levels of improvement. In 2015–16, 27% of the rural women and 16% of the urban women (in the age group of 15–49 years) were counted as undernourished or chronically energy deficient by the National Family Health Survey.

Underweight Child

More than half of the women in the reproductive age group (15–49 years) in both rural and urban India were anaemic in 2015–16. As regards children, about 60% of the rural and 56% of the urban children (in the age group of 6–59 months) are counted to be anaemic, in 2015–16. About 41% of the rural and 31% of urban children are stunted, that is, they are not of the required height in correspondence to their age. Another indicator of nutrition deficiency among children is "underweight", which is weight in relation to age. In India, in 2015–16, about 20% of children(in the age group of 6–59 months) in rural and urban India are estimated to be underweight.

Nutrition and Health Status in Tamil Nadu

Nutrition plays a crucial role in human health and well-being. At the national level, despite higher economic growth, improvements in human development indicators like nutrition levels of the population have been unacceptably slow. A large number of Indian children are stunted. A substantial number of Indian children and women are underweight, anaemic and suffer from micronutrient deficiencies. To address these concerns, the Central and state governments have been channellising substantial resources into various health and nutrition schemes and programmes like Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), mid-day meals, Reproductive and Child Health Programmes (RCH) and National Rural Health Mission (NRHM). However, an effective scaling up of these efforts is required to mitigate the incidence of under-nutrition in the country.

Tamil Nadu has played a pioneering role in bringing about significant changes in the health and nutrition status of children under six years of age, pregnant women, lactating mothers and adolescent girls. The Government of Tamil Nadu's successive budget outlays for nutrition and health are the highest in the country. The performance of the ICDS scheme and the Puratchi Thalaivar MGR Nutritious Meal Programme (PTMGRNMP) in Tamil Nadu are considered one of the best in the country.

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The Government of Tamil Nadu's policy for "A Malnutrition Free Tamil Nadu" guides the state's long-term multi-sectoral strategy for eliminating malnutrition. The goal is "reducing human malnutrition of all types to the levels of best performing countries".In Tamil Nadu, ICDS is being implemented through 54,439 Child Centres (comprising 49,499 Anganwadi Centres and 4,940 Mini Anganwadi Centres) in 434 Child Development Blocks (385 rural, 47 urban and 2 tribal).

With steady expansion into unreached areas, increasing coverage of marginalised groups, enhanced allocations and enlarged scope of services, ICDS is now considered to be one of the world's largest programmes of its kind.

The PTMGRNMP is considered to be the largest noon meal programme in the country for combating malnutrition among children, increasing primary school enrolment and reducing dropout rates. Other states in the country have modelled their noon meal programmes along the lines of Tamil Nadu's pioneering efforts.

ICDS Scheme

Important ongoing Schemes in Tamil Nadu

1. Under Dr. Muthulakshmi Reddy Maternity Benefit Scheme, financial assistance to the tune of ₹ 12,000 is being disbursed to poor pregnant women.
2. The Chief Minister's Comprehensive Health Insurance Scheme was launched in the state in 2011-12 with the aim to provide Universal Healthcare to all by providing free medical and surgical treatment.
3. Tamil Nadu Health Systems Projects (TNHSP) has launched ambulance services free of cost (The 108 Emergency Ambulance Service).
4. The School Health Programme emphasises on providing comprehensive healthcare services to all students studying in Government and Government-aided schools.
5. The National Leprosy Eradication programme is being implemented in the state with the aim to detect and to provide sustained regular treatment to all leprosy patients.

School Health Programme

Some Nutrition Programmes in Tamil Nadu

1. Puratchi Thalaivar M.G.R. Nutrition Meal Programme:
2. National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education
3. General ICDS Projects and World Bank Assisted Integrated Child Development Services:
4. Pradhan Manthri Gramodaya Yojana Scheme (PMGYS):
5. Tamil Nadu Integrated Nutrition Programme:
6. Mid-Day Meal Programme:

Mid-Day Meal Programme

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SUMMARY

- The term was broadened to include the three basic components of food and nutrition security. They are availability, access and absorption.
- The Green Revolution paved the way for self-sufficiency in food grain production.
- The National Food Security Act (NFSA) was passed by the Indian Parliament in 2013.
- The new agricultural policy based on export agricultural goods was announced by the Central government in 2018.
- Health has an important role in human resources development.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Availability	that which can be used, attainable	அடையத்தகுந்த
Accessibility	right to enter	அணுகுமுறை
Affordability	ability to be afforded	தாங்கும் திறன்
Sufficient	enough	போதுமான
Purchasing power	the financial ability to buy produce	பொருள்கள் வாங்கும் திறன்
Productivity	power of producing	உற்பத்தி செய்யும் ஆற்றல்
Degradation	to reduce to a lower rank	மதிப்புக்கு குறைவு
Unidimensional	having one direction	ஒரு பரிமாணம்
Malnourished	lack of proper nutrition	ஊட்டச்சத்தின்மை

EXERCISE

1F3MQ

I Choose the correct answer

1. Buffer stock is the stock of food grains, namely wheat and rice, procured by the government through the ________.
   a) FCI
   b) Consumer Cooperatives
   c) ICICI
   d) IFCI

2. Which is correct?
   i) HYV–High Yielding Varieties
   ii) MSP–Minimum Support Price
   iii) PDS–Public Distribution System
   iv) FCI–Food Corporation of India

   a) i and ii are correct
   b) iii and iv are correct
   c) ii and iii are correct
   d) all are correct

3. ________ extended assistance through its Public Law 480.
   a) United States of America
   b) India
   c) Singapore
   d) UK

4. ________ revolution was born in India paving way for self sufficiency in food grain production.
   a) Blue Revolution
   b) White Revolution
   c) Green Revolution
   d) Grey Revolution

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5. __________ is the only state in India to adopt universal PDS.
   a) Kerala
   b) Andhra Pradesh
   c) Tamil Nadu
   d) Karnataka

6. __________ is the process of providing or obtaining the food necessary for health and growth.
   a) Health
   b) Nutrition
   c) Sanitation
   d) Security

II Fill in the blanks

1. __________ is an important indicator of nutrition deficiency.

2. In the year __________ National Food Security Act was passed by the Indian Parliament.

3. __________ play an important role in the supply of quality goods at responsible rates to common people.

III Match the following

1. Consumer cooperatives	– subsidized rates
2. Public Distribution System	– 2013
3. UNDP	– supply of quality goods
4. National Food Security Act	– United Nations Development Programme

IV Assertion and Reason

1. **Assertion (A):** Purchasing power increases, price decreases and vice versa.
   Reason (R): The production of goods decline, the price of goods increases and then the purchasing power is affected.
   a) A is correct, R is false
   b) Both A and R are false statements
   c) A is correct but R is not a correct explanation
   d) A is correct, R is the correct explanation of A

V Answer in short

1. Define food security according to FAO.
2. What are the basic three components of of food and nutrition security?
3. What is the role of FCI in Green Revolution?
4. What are the effects of Green Revolution?
5. Write some name of the nutrition programmes in Tamil Nadu.

VI Answer in detail

1. Elucidate why the Green Revolution was born.
2. Explain Minimum Support Price.
3. Elaborate the Public Distribution System.
4. What are the factors affecting the purchasing power and explain them.
5. What are the main objectivies of the new Agricultural Policy?

VII Activity and Project

1. Visit nearby "Uzhavar Sandhai" and collect the information about the functions of market.
2. Collect information about health centre functioning nearby your location.

REFERENCE BOOKS

1. Dr. S. Sankaran, *Indian Economy*, India.
2. Ministry of Agriculture & Farmers Welfare. Annual report 2016–17.
3. Nutrition & Food Security. UN India.
4. *Pratiyogita Darpan*–Indian Economy.
5. Economic Survey 2017–18.
6. *The Gazette of India*–"The National Food Security Act 2013".

INTERNET RESOURCES

1. www.agricoop.nic.in
2. www.fci.gov.in
3. www.statistics.com

ICT CORNER

Food Security and Nutrition

Steps

- Open the browser and type the URL given below.
- Click on the left side menu to view the policies on food security, procurement data for current marketing season, minimum support price of food grains.
- For example, click on the minimum support price of paddy. You can see the yearwise minimum support price of paddy, wheat and coarsegrain.
- Likewise, you can view regionwise procurement also.

Website URL:

http://fci.gov.in/procurements.php?view=51

81MFG

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Unit - 4

Government and Taxes

Learning Objectives

- To understand the role of the government and development policies
- To gain knowledge about tax and its types
- To study how is tax levied
- To gain insight into black money and tax evasion
- To know the difference between the tax and other payments
- To understand the taxes and its development

Introduction

Tax is levied by government for the development of the state's economy. The revenue of the government depends upon direct and indirect taxes. Direct taxes are levied on income of the persons and the indirect taxes are levied on goods and services by which the government mobilises its "financial resources".

4.1 Role of Government in Development Policies

1. **Defence:** This is an essential security function to protect our nation from our enemies. The Union government is responsible for creating and maintaining defence forces.
2. **Foreign policy:** In today's world, we need to maintain friendly relationships with all the other countries in the world. We should also maintain cordial economic relationships through exports and imports, sending and receiving investments and labour. This service is also provided by the Union government.
3. **Conduct of periodic elections:** India is a democratic country. We elect our representatives to Parliament and state assemblies. Similarly the state governments conduct elections to local bodies within the state.
4. **Law and order:** Both the Union and state governments enact numerous laws to protect our rights, properties and to regulate our economy and society. To settle disputes, the Union government has a vibrant judicial system. State governments take the responsibility for administering the police force in respective states.
5. **Public administration and provision of public goods:** The government generally administers the economy and society through various departments, for example, revenue department, schools, hospitals, rural development and urban development. The local governments provide public goods like local roads, drainage, drinking water and waste collection and disposal.

6. **Redistribution of income and poverty alleviation:** Governments collect various taxes to finance the various activities mentioned earlier. The taxes are collected in a way that the high-income people can bring in more tax revenue to the government than the poor. The governments also spend money such that the poor are given some basic necessities of life like food, shelter, clothing education, health care and monthly income to the very poor persons. Thus collecting taxes and spending for the poor to reduce poverty.
7. **Regulate the economy:** The Union government, through the Reserve Bank of India, controls money supply and controls the interest rate, inflation and foreign exchange rate. The main objective is to remove too much of fluctuation in these rates. The Union Government also controls the economy through various other agencies such as Securities Exchange Board of India and Competition Commission of India. All the governments in India run public sector enterprises to provide important goods and services at affordable rates to the people.

4.2 Tax

The origin of the word "tax" is from "taxation," which means an estimate.

Taxation is a means by which governments finance their expenditure by imposing charges on citizens and corporate entities. The main purpose of taxation is to accumulate funds for the functioning of the government machinery. Tax has come into forefront on account of the new concept of "welfare state".

Taxes are compulsory payments to government without expectation of direct return (or) benefit to the tax payer. Prof. Seligman also defined a tax as "a compulsory contribution from a person to the government to defray the expenses incurred in the common interest of all, without reference to special benefits conferred."

Tax system

Every type of tax has some advantages and some disadvantages. So we have a tax system, that is, a collection of variety of taxes. From Adam Smith, many economists have given lists of canons of taxation. It is important to recall those common among them for discussion here.

1. Canon of equity

Since tax is a compulsory payment, all economists agree that equity is the cardinal principle in designing the tax system. The rich should pay more tax revenue to government than the poor, because rich has more ability than the poor to pay the tax.

2. Canon of Certainty

Government should announce in advance the tax system so that every tax payer will be able to calculate how much tax amount one may have to pay during a year to the government.

3. Canons of Economy and Convenience

If the tax is simple, then the cost of collecting taxes (tax payer cost + tax collector cost) will be very low. Further, tax should be collected from a person at the time he gets enough money to pay the tax. This is called canon of convenience. A convenient tax reduces the cost of collecting tax.

4. Canons of Productivity and Elasticity

Government should choose the taxes that can get enough tax revenue to it. It should choose a few taxes that can fetch more tax revenue, instead of lots of taxes. This is canon of productivity. Tax is paid by the people out their incomes. Therefore the tax system should be designed in such a way that the people automatically pay more tax revenue if their incomes grow. This is called canon of elasticity.

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Why Taxes?

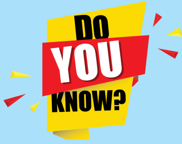
States and their functional equivalents throughout history have used money provided by taxation to carry out many functions. Some of these include expenditures on economic infrastructure (transportation, sanitation, public safety, education, healthcare systems, to name a few), military, scientific research, culture and the arts, public works and public insurance and the operation of government itself. A government's ability to raise taxes is called its fiscal capacity.

When expenditures exceed tax revenue, a government accumulates debt. A portion of taxes may be used to service past debts. Governments also use taxes to fund welfare and public services. These services can include education systems, pensions for the elderly, unemployment benefits and public transportation. Energy, water and waste management systems are also common public utilities.

4.3 Types of Taxes

Direct Taxes

A tax imposed on an individual or organisation, which is paid directly, is a direct tax. The burden of a direct tax cannot be shifted to others. J.S. Mill defines a direct tax as "one which is demanded from the very persons who it is intended or desired should pay it." Some direct taxes are income tax, wealth tax and corporation tax.



In India, Income Tax was introduced for the first time in 1860 by Sir James Wilson in order to meet the losses sustained by the Government on account of the Mutiny of 1857.

Income tax

Income tax is the most common and most important tax levied on an individual in India. It is charged directly based on the income of a person. The rate at which it is charged varies, depending on the level of income.

Students are asked to search a Income Tax website and know the Income Tax slab for current year.

Corporate tax

This tax is levied on companies that exist as separate entities from their shareholders. It is charged on royalties, interest gains from sale of capital assets located in India and fees for a technical services and dividends.

Foreign companies are taxed on income that it arises in India.

Income	For Indian Companies	For Foreign Companies
Less than ₹ 50 crore	25%	40%
More than ₹ 50 crore	30%	40%

Wealth tax

Wealth tax is charged on the benefits derived from property ownership. The same property will be taxed every year on its current market value. The tax is levied on the individuals and companies alike.

In India taxes are collected by all the three tiers of government. There are taxes that can be easily collected by the Union government. In India almost all the direct taxes are collected by the Union governments. Taxes on goods and services are collected by both Union and State governments. The taxes on properties are collected by local governments.

In India we collect more tax revenue through indirect taxes than through direct taxes. The major indirect taxes in India are customs duty and GST.

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Indirect Taxes

If the burden of the tax can be shifted to others, it is an indirect tax. The impact is on one person while the incidence is on the another person. Therefore, in the case of indirect taxes, the tax payer is not the tax bearer.

Some indirect taxes are stamp duty, entertainment tax, excise duty and goods and service tax (GST).

Stamp duty

Stamp duty is a tax that is paid on official documents like marriage registration or documents related to a property and in some contractual agreements.

Entertainment tax

Entertainment tax is a duty that is charged by the government on any source of entertainment provided. This tax can be charged on movie tickets, tickets to amusement parks, exhibitions and even sports events.

Excise duty

An excise tax is any duty on manufactured goods levied at the movement of manufacture, rather than at sale. Excise is typically imposed in addition to an indirect tax such as a sales tax.

Goods and service tax (GST)

The goods and service tax (GST) is one of the indirect taxes. The GST was passed in Parliament on 29 March 2017. The act came into effect on 1 July 2017. The motto is one nation, one market, one tax.

DO YOU KNOW?

France was the first country to implement GST in 1954.

4.4 How Are Taxes Levied?

Tax is levied by the government progressively, proportionately as well as regressively.

Progressive tax

Progressive tax rate is one in which the rate of taxation increases (multiplier) as the tax base increases (multiplicand). In the case of a progressive tax, When income increases, the tax rate also increases.

Example:

Tax Base	Tax Rate	Amount of Tax
₹10,000	10%	₹1000
₹20,000	15%	₹3000
₹30,000	25%	₹7500

Proportionate taxes

Tax levied on goods and service in a fixed portion is known as proportionate taxes. All tax payers contribute the same proportion of their incomes.

Example:

Tax Base	Tax Rate	Amount of Tax
₹10,000	10%	₹1000
₹20,000	10%	₹2000
₹30,000	10%	₹3000

Structure of Goods and Service Tax (GST)

State Goods and Service Tax (SGST): Intra state (within the state)

VAT/sales tax, purchase tax, entertainment tax, luxury tax, lottery tax and state surcharge and cesses

Central Goods and Service Tax (CGST): Intra state (within the state)

Central Excise Duty , service tax, countervailing duty, additional duty of customs, surcharge, education and secondary/higher secondary cess

Integrated Goods and Service Tax (IGST): Inter state (integrated GST)

There are four major GST rates: (5%, 12%, 18% and 28%) Almost all the necessities of life like vegetables and food grains are excempted from this tax.

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Regressive Taxes

It implies that higher the rate of tax lower the income groups than in the case of higher income groups. It is a very opposite of progressive taxation.

Progressive Tax	Proportional Tax	Regressive Tax
Income increase	Income Increase	Income change
Tax also Increase	Tax Decrease	Same Tax always
E.g. Income Tax	E.g. Corporate Tax	E.g. Sales Tax

4.5 Black Money

Black Money

Black money is funds earned on the black market on which income and other taxes have not been paid. The unaccounted money that is concealed from the tax administrator is called black money.

Causes of Black Money

Several sources of black money are identified as causes.

1. Shortage of goods
2. Licensing proceeding
3. Contribution of the industrial sector
4. Smuggling
5. Tax structure

4.6 Tax Evasion

Tax evasion is the illegal evasion of taxes by individuals, corporations and trusts. Tax evasion activities included

- Underreporting income
- Inflating deductions or expenses
- Hiding money
- Hiding interest in offshore accounts

Tax evasion penalties

1 If a person wilfully commits the act of tax evasion, he may face felony charges. Tax evasion penalties include imprisonment of up to five years and high amount as fines.

2 The defendant may also be ordered to pay for the costs of prosecution.

3 Tax evasion penalties can be harsh, depending on the severity of the crime.

4.7 Taxes and Development

The role of taxation in developing economies is as follows.

1. **Resource mobilisation**: Taxation enables the government to mobilise a substantial amount of revenue. The tax revenue is generated by imposing direct taxes such as personal income tax and corporate tax and indirect taxes such as customs duty, excise duty, etc.

2. **Reduction inequalities of income**: Taxation follows the principle of equity. The direct taxes are progressive in nature. Also certain indirect taxes, such as taxes on luxury goods, is also progressive in nature.

3. **Social welfare:** Taxation generates social welfare. Social welfare is generated due to higher taxes on certain undesirable products like alcoholic products.

4. **Foreign exchange:** Taxation encourages exports and restricts imports, Generally developing countries and even the developed countries do not impose taxes on export items.

5. **Regional development**: Taxation plays an important role in regional development, Tax incentives such as tax holidays for setting up industries in backward regions, which induces business firms to set up industries in such regions.

6. **Control of inflation:** Taxation can be used as an instrument for controlling inflation. Through taxation the government can control inflation by reducing the tax on the commodities.

Difference between Tax and other Payments

Tax	Payments
Tax is compulsory to the government without getting any direct benefits	Fee is the payment for getting any service
If the element of revenue for general purpose of the state predominates, the levy becomes a tax	While a fee is a payment for a specific benefit privilege although the special to the primary purpose of regulation in public interest.
Tax is a compulsory payment	Fee is a voluntary payment.
If tax is imposed on a person, he has to pay it; otherwise he has to be penalised	On the other hand fee is not paid if the person do not want to get the service
In this case, tax payer does not expect any direct benefit. Example: Income tax, gift box, wealth tax, VAT etc.	Fee payer can get direct benefit for paying fee. Examples: stamp fee, driving license fee, government registration fee

SUMMARY

- Direct Tax is a tax paid directly to the Union government or to state or local governments, such as income tax and property tax.
- Income Tax is a tax paid by individuals and businesses based on earned and unearned income.
- Local Tax is a tax charged by a local government, such as a city or country.

A-Z GLOSSARY

Levied	To impose taxes	வரி (விதிக்கப்பட்ட)
Fluctuation	To change	ஏற்ற இறக்கம்
Defray	Meet the expenses	செலவை ஈடுகட்ட
Proponents	Person who advocates theory	கொள்கை மொழிவோர்
Progressive Tax	Happening or developing gradually or in stages	வளர்வீத வரி
Regressive Tax	Taking a proportionally greater amount from those on lower incomes.	குறைவுவீத வரி
Proportionate Tax	(of a variable quantity) having a constant ratio to another quantity.	ஒரேவீத வரி
Evasion	The action of evading something	ஏய்ப்பு

EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. The three levels of governments in India are
   a) Union, state and local
   b) Central, state and village
   c) Union, municipality and panchayat
   d) None of the above

2. In India, taxes are including
   a) Direct taxes
   b) Indirect taxes.
   c) Both (a) and (b)
   d) None of these

3. Which is the role of government and development policies?
   a) Defence
   b) Foreign policy
   c) Regulate the economy
   d) all of above

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4. The most common and important tax levied on an individual in India is
   a) Service tax   b) Excise duty.
   c) Income tax   d) Central sales tax
5. Under which tax one nation, one uniform tax is ensured
   a) Value added tax (VAT)
   b) Income tax
   c) Goods and service tax
   d) Sales tax
6. Income tax was introduced in india for the first time in the year __________ .
   a) 1860   b) 1870   c) 1880   d) 1850
7. __________ tax is charged on the benefits derived from property ownership.
   a) Income tax   b) Wealth tax
   c) Corporate tax   d) Excise duty
8. What are identified as causes of black money?
   a) Shortage of goods   b) High tax rate
   c) Smuggling   d) All of above

II Fill in the blanks

1. __________ is levied by government for the development of the state's economy.
2. The origin of the word 'tax' is from the word __________.
3. The burden of the __________ tax cannot be shifted to others.
4. The Goods and Service Tax act came into effect on __________.
5. The unaccounted money that is concealed from the tax administrator is called __________.

III Choose the correct statement

1. Which of the following statement is correct about GST?
   (i) GST is the 'one point tax'.
   (ii) This aims to replace all direct taxes levied on goods and services by the Central and State governments.
   (iii) It will be implemented from 1 July 2017 throughout the country.
   (iv) It will unified the tax structure in India.
   a) (i) and (ii) are correct
   b) (ii), (iii) and (iv) are correct
   c) (i), (iii) and (iv) are correct
   d) All are correct

IV Match the following

1.	Income Tax	-	Value added tax
2.	Excise duty	-	1 July 2017
3.	VAT	-	Smuggling
4.	GST	-	Direct tax
5.	Black money	-	Indirect tax

V Give Short Answers

1. Define tax.
2. Why we pay tax to the government?
3. What are the types of tax? Give examples.
4. Write short note on Goods and Service Tax.
5. What is progressive tax?
6. What is meant by black money?
7. What is tax evasion?
8. write any two difference between tax and payments?

VI Brief Answer

1. Explain some direct and indirect taxes.
2. Write the structure of GST.
3. What is black money? Write the causes of black money.

VII Activity and Projects

1. Collect information about the local taxes (water, electricity and house tax etc).
2. Students purchase some goods on the shop. The teacher and students discuss those goods, maximum retail price, purchasing price or GST.

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Unit - 5

Industrial Clusters in Tamil Nadu

Learning Objectives

- To know the historical development of Industrial Clusters in Tamil Nadu
- To know the Tamil Nadu government policies and Industrial development Agencies
- To understand the impact of Government policies
- To know the role of the Entrepreneur

FUP8M

Introduction

Generally, "any human activity which is engaged in the conversion of raw materials into readily usable materials is called an industry". Industrialisation refers to the process of using modern techniques of production to produce goods that are required by both consumers and other producers on a large scale. In this chapter we will learn the nature of industrialisation of Tamil Nadu, importance of industrial clusters, how industrial clusters have developed in Tamil Nadu and the role of government initiatives in promoting industries.

5.1 Importance of Industrialisation

To understand importance of industries, we need to understand why the share of agriculture in an economy's income and employment decreases with development. First, demand for food remains constant with regard to income. Therefore, as an economy grows and incomes increase, consumers tend to spend a lesser share of their income on products from the agricultural sector.

Second, even the food that is consumed is subject to more transformation. Food products are taken over longer distances, processed and branded. This also requires that food products have to be preserved. As a result, the prices that farmers get tend to be much less compared to the prices at which consumers buy.

Third, there are limits to the ability of agriculture to absorb labour due to the declining marginal productivity of land. Wages too cannot therefore increase and as a result poverty levels may remain high, especially when more and more people continue to rely on agriculture for their livelihood.

Due to all these factors, there is a need for an economy's production and employment base to diversify away from agriculture.

What benefits does industrialisation bring to an economy?

As stated earlier, it is essential to produce inputs to other producers in an economy. Even agriculture requires inputs from industry such as fertilisers and tractors to increase productivity.

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Second, a market exists for both producers and consumer goods. Even services like banking, transport and trade are dependent on production of industrial goods.

Third, by using modern methods of production, industries contribute to better productivity and hence lower cost of production of all goods produced. It therefore helps people to buy goods at a cheaper rate and help create demand for more products.

Fourth, through such expansion of production, industrialisation helps to absorb the labour force coming out of agriculture. Employment generation is therefore an important objective of industrialisation.

Fifth, a related advantage of industrialisation is therefore technological change. Through use of modern techniques, industrialisation contributes to learning of such methods and their improvement. As a result labour productivity, ie, output per unit of labour input increases, which can help workers earn higher wages.

Sixth, expanding incomes lead to more demand for goods and services.

5.2 Types of Industries

Industries can be classified on the basis of

(a) **Users**: If the output is consumed by the final consumer, it is called a consumer goods sector. If the output is consumed by another producer, it is called a capital goods sector. There are industries that produce raw materials for other industries such as cement and steel. Such industries are called basic goods industries.

(b) **Type of Inputs Used**: Industries are also classified based on the kind of raw material used such as agro-processing, textiles sector, rubber products, leather goods, etc.

(c) **Ownership**: Firms may be privately owned, publicly owned (by the government, central or state), jointly owned by the private and public sector, joint sector or cooperatively owned (cooperatives).

(d) **Size**: Firms may be large, small or medium based on their volume of output, sales or employment or on the basis of the amount of investments made. There are also micro or tiny enterprises that are smaller than even small firms.

The small sector is seen as important for two reasons. One, it is believed to generate more employment than the large-scale sector, which is likely to use more advanced and automated technologies and therefore may not generate enough employment. Second, the small scale sector allows for a larger number of entrepreneurs to emerge from less privileged backgrounds.

Based on experiences of industrialisation in different parts of the world, it is believed that when small firms specialising in one sector are geographically concentrated in specific locations, and linked to one another through production and learning, they tend to be equally if not more efficient than large scale enterprises. Such agglomerations of small firms are called industrial clusters.

5.3 Industrial Clusters

Industrial clusters are groups of firms in a defined geographic area that share common markets, technologies and skill requirements. The advantages of industrial clusters or districts was first observed by the famous economist Alfred Marshall in the 1920s when he tried to understand the working of clusters of small firms in the metal-working and textile regions in England. While the notion of an 'industrial district' was developed by Marshall, it was only after the success of small firms in Italy in the 1980s that it became popular. Policy-makers in developing countries like India began to promote them actively as they realized that there several such small firm clusters in the country.

The following are the chief characteristics of a successful cluster.

- geographical proximity of small and medium enterprises (SMEs)

- sectoral specialisation
- close inter-firm collaboration
- inter-firm competition based on innovation
- a socio-cultural identity, which facilitates trust
- multi-skilled workforce
- active self-help organisations, and
- supportive regional and municipal governments.

Firms are therefore expected to collaborate and compete with one another at the same time. By collaborating, they can expand their capacity and also learn from one another. Through competition, they are forced to become more efficient.

How Do Clusters Originate?

Clusters may arise due to many factors. Certain clusters evolve over a long time in history when artisans settle in one locality and evolve over centuries. Handloom weaving clusters are one examples of this development. Or else, in some sectors, when a large firm is established, a cluster of firms may emerge to take care of its input and service requirements. At times, governments may decide to encourage manufacturing using raw materials from a region, which may also lead to emergence of clusters.

5.4 Historical Development of Industrialisation in Tamil Nadu

There is lot of evidence for presence of industrial activities such as textiles, ship-building, iron and steel making and pottery in precolonial Tamil Nadu. Given the vast coastline, the region has been involved in trade with both South-East and West Asia for several centuries. Colonial policies also contributed to the decline of the handloom weaving industry due to competition from machine-made imports from England. But some industries also developed during the colonial period.

Industrialisation in the Colonial Period

There are two sets of factors that have contributed to the process. The introduction of cotton cultivation in western and southern Tamil Nadu by the colonial government led to the emergence of a large-scale textile sector in these parts.

Second, increase in trade during this period led to industrial development around two of the most active ports in the region, Chennai and Tuticorin. Match factories too emerged during the colonial period in the Sivakasi region, which later on became a major centre for fireworks production and printing. Port-related activity too contributed to the growth of the region. Leather production was also taking place in Dindigul, Vellore and Ambur areas.

In Western Tamil Nadu, the emergence of textiles industries also led to demand and starting of textile machinery industry in the region. This textile machinery industry in turn led to the rise of a number of small workshops for repair and producers of machinery components. Another major development in the western region is the introduction of electricity from hydro-electric power in 1930s. Availability of electricity allowed for use of oil engines for drawing ground water. This led to both expansion of agriculture as well as increase in demand for oil engines. In turn, it led to emergence of workshops for servicing engines and also for addressing the demand for spare parts. Foundries began to be set up and agricultural machinery began to be produced.

Post-Independence to early 1990s

Soon after independence, several large enterprises were set up by both the central and state governments in different segments such as the Integral Coach Factory in Chennai to make railway coaches and the Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited (BHEL) in Tiruchirapalli manufacture to boilers and turbines. BHEL in turn led to the emergence of an industrial cluster of several small firms catering to its

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input requirements. Heavy Vehicles Factory was set up to manufacture tanks in Avadi on the outskirts of Chennai. Standard Motors too started manufacturing cars in Chennai. Ashok Motors (later Ashok Leyland) and Standard Motors together helped form an automobile cluster in the Chennai region. The Avadi industrial estate was established in the 1950s to support the small and medium companies supplying to the large firms in the region. More hydro-electric power projects in the state were also initiated to increase the spread of electrification. The government played a major role in all these processes. The Salem Steel Plant was set up in 1973 to produce stainless steel.

The 1970s and 1980s saw the setting up of emergence of powerloom weaving clusters in the Coimbatore region as well as expansion of cotton knitwear cluster in Tiruppur and home furnishings cluster in Karur. This period also saw more encouragement of the small and medium sector with setting up of industrial estates by the state government in different parts. The Hosur industrial cluster is a successful case of how such policy efforts to promote industrial estates helped to develop industries in a backward region.

Industrialisation in Tamil Nadu – Liberalization Phase

The final phase of industrialisation is the post-reforms period since the early 1990s. The reforms made the state governments more responsible for resource mobilisation and they were forced to compete with each other to attract private investments for industrialisation. Incentives such as cheap land, tax concessions and subsidised but quality power were all offered to woo investors. Trade liberalisation and currency devaluation also helped open up export markets. This led to two major developments.

The important industries in the state that evolved over a much longer period include sugar, fertilizers, cement, agricultural implements, iron and steel, chemicals, transformers and paper.

Because of all these factors, Tamil Nadu at present has the largest number of factories among all states in India and also has the largest share of workforce employed in manufacturing. Importantly, it is more labour intensive compared to other industrially advanced states like Maharashtra and Gujarat. The major industries are automobiles, auto-components, light and heavy engineering, machinery, cotton, textiles, rubber, food products, transport equipment, chemicals, and leather and leather goods. Unlike other states, the industries are spread across all regions of the state (there are 27 clusters in 13 districts) with many of them being export oriented as well. The state has a well-developed network of roads, rail, air and major ports.

5.5 Major Industrial Clusters and Their Specialisation in Tamil Nadu

Automotive Clusters

Chennai is nicknamed as "The Detroit of Asia" because of its large auto industry base. Chennai is home to large number of auto assembly and component making firms. While there were a few domestic firms like TVS, TI Cycles, Ashok Leyland and Standard Motors earlier, in the post-reform period, several MNC firms like Hyundai, Ford, Daimler-Benz and Renault-Nissan have opened factories in the region. This in turn has attracted a number of component suppliers from foreign countries. Many local firms too cater to component production for all these firms.

Hosur is another auto cluster with firms like TVS and Ashok Leyland having their factories there. Coimbatore region is also developing into an auto component cluster.

Truck and Bus Body Building Industry Clusters

The Namakkal-Tiruchengode belt in western Tamil Nadu is known for its truck body building industry. Karur is another major hub with more than 50 units. Many entrepreneurs

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were previous employees in a big firm involved in body building who came out to set up their own units.

Textile Clusters

Tamil Nadu is home to the largest textiles sector in the country. Because of the development of cotton textile industry since the colonial period, Coimbatore often referred as the "Manchester of South India". At present, most of the spinning mills have moved around the Coimbatore city. Tamil Nadu is the biggest producer of cotton yarn in the country.

Powerloom is however more widespread with Erode and Salem region too having a large number of power loom units.

Tiruppur is famous for clustering of a large number of firms producing cotton knitwear.

Textile Industry

It accounts for nearly 80% of the country's cotton knitwear exports and generates employment in the range of over three lakh people since the late 1980s. It is also a major producer for the domestic market. Because of its success in the global market, it is seen as one of the most dynamic clusters in the Global South. While initially most firms were run by local entrepreneurs, at present, some of the leading garment exporters in India have set up factories here.1

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Apart from body building, Karur is a major centre of exports of home furnishings like table cloth, curtains, bed covers and towels. Bhavani and Kumarapalayam are again major centres of production of carpets, both for the domestic and the global markets.

Apart from such modern clusters, there are also traditional artisanal clusters such as Madurai and Kanchipuram that are famous for silk and cotton handloom sarees.

Leather and Leather Goods Clusters

Tamil Nadu accounts for 60 per cent of leather tanning capacity in India and 38 per cent of all leather footwear, garments and components. Hundreds of leather and tannery facilities are located around Vellore and its nearby towns, such as Ranipet, Ambur and Vaniyambadi. The Vellore district is the top exporter of finished leather goods in the country. Chennai also has a large number of leather product making units involved in exports. There is another clustering of leather processing in Dindigul and Erode. The leather products sector too is a major employment generator.

Fireworks, Matches and Printing Cluster

Sivakasi region, once famous for its match industry has now become a major centre for printing and fireworks in the country. It is believed to contribute to 90% of India's fireworks production, 80% of safety matches and 60% of offset printing solutions. The offset printing industry has a high degree of specialisation among firms with several of them undertaking just one operation required for printing. All these industries have their origin in the colonial period and at present offer employment to a large number of workers.

Fireworks Industry

Electronics and Information Technology (IT) Clusters

After the economic reforms started in the early 1990s, the state has seen the entry of hardware and electronics manufacturers like Nokia, Foxconn, Motorola, Sony-Ericsson, Samsung and Dell making cellular handset devices, circuit boards and consumer electronics. They have all been set up in the Chennai region.

Information Technology Specific Special Economic Zones :

In order to make development more inclusive, Tier II cities such as Coimbatore, Madurai, Trichy, Tirunelveli, Hosur and Salem have been promoted as IT investment destinations apart from the Chennai region. To facilitate this, ELCOT has established ELCOSEZs (IT Specific Special Economic Zones) in the following eight locations:

- Chennai – Sholinganallur
- Coimbatore – Vilankurichi
- Madurai – Ilandhaikulam
- Madurai – Vadapalanji-Kinnimangalam
- Trichy – Navalpattu
- Tirunelveli – Gangaikondan
- Salem – Jagirammapalayam
- Hosur – Viswanathapuram

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[redacted]

5.6 The Policy Factors that Helped the Industrialisation Process in Tamil Nadu

Policy factors can be divided into three aspects:

Education

Industries require skilled human resources. Apart from a lot of attention to primary education to promote literacy and basic arithmetic skills, the state is known for its vast supply of technical human resources. It is home to one of the largest number of engineering colleges, polytechnics and Industrial Training Centres in the country.

Infrastructure

The widespread diffusion of electrification has contributed to the spread of industrialisation to smaller towns and villages in the state. Along with electrification, Tamil Nadu is known for its excellent transport infrastructure, especially minor roads that connect rural parts of the state to nearby towns and cities. A combination of public and private transport has also facilitated rural to urban connectivity and therefore connect small producers to markets better.

Industrial Promotion

Apart from investments in education and transport and energy infrastructure, active policy efforts were made to promote specific sectors and also industrialisation in specific regions. Policies to promote specific sectors like automobile, auto components, bio technology and Information and communication Technology sectors have been formulated in the post reform period. In addition, the state has put in place several industrial promotion agencies for both large enterprises and the small and medium segments, as well as to provide supporting infrastructure.

The following are some agencies that have played a key role in industrialization in the state

SIPCOT (State Industries Promotion Corporation of Tamil Nadu) - was formed in the year 1971 to promote industrial growth in the state by setting up industrial estates.

Special Economic Zones (SEZs)

A policy was introduced in April 2000 for the settling up of special Economic Zones in the country with a view to a hassle-free environment for exports.

Accordingly, the government has converted Export Processing Zones located at following places.

Nanguneri SEZ	–	A multi product SEZ, Thirunelveli
Ennore SEZ	–	Thermal power project, Vayalur
Coimbatore SEZ	–	IT Parks
Hosur SEZ	–	Auto Engineering, Electronics, Defence and Aerospace
Perambalur SEZ	–	Multi product SEZ
Autocity SEZ	–	Automobile/Auto Components, Tiruvallur
India-Singapore SEZ	–	IT & ITES, Electronic Hardware, Logistics and Warehousing – Thiruvallur District
Bio-Pharmaceuticals SEZ	–	Clinical Research Organisation, Poison Control Centre, Centre for Regenerative Medicine, Medicine Research

Madras Export Processing Zone (MEPZ)

MEPZ is a Special Economic Zone in Chennai. It is one of the seven export processing zones in the country set up the central government. It was established in 1984 to promote foreign direct investment, enhance foreign exchange earnings and create greater employment opportunities in the region. The MEPZ headquarters is located on GST Road in Tambaram, Chennai.

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SIPCOT

TANSIDCO (Tamil Nadu Small Industries Development Corporation) - is a state-agency of the state of Tamil Nadu established in the year 1970 to promote small-scale industries in the state. It gives subsidies and provide technical assistance for new firms in the small scale sector.

TIDCO (Tamil Nadu Industrial Development Corporation), 1965 - is another government agency to promote industries in the state and to establish industrial estates.

TIIC (Tamil Nadu Industrial Investment Corporation Ltd.), 1949- is intended to provide low-cost financial support for both setting up new units and also for expansion of existing units.

TANSI (Tamil Nadu Small Industries Corporation Ltd.), 1965 - It is supposed to be the first industrial corporation operating in the domain for small enterprises.

Issues with Industrialisation

Though Tamil Nadu has emerged as a relatively highly industrialised state in the country, the state faces a few issues in sustaining the process. To begin with, some clusters, especially chemicals, textiles and leather clusters, tend to generate a lot of polluting effluents that affect health. The effluents also pollute water bodies into which effluents are let into and also adjoining agricultural lands. Second, employment generation potential has declined because of use of frontier technologies because of the need to compete globally. Quality of employment also has suffered in recent years as most workers are employed only temporarily.

Startup India Scheme (Launched 16-Jan-2016):

Startup India Scheme is an initiative of the Indian government, the primary objective of which is the promotion of startups, generation of employment and wealth creation.

Standup India Scheme (Launched 5-April-2016):

Standup India Scheme is to facilitate bank loans between ₹10 lakh and ₹1 crore to at least one Scheduled Caste (SC) or Scheduled Tribe (ST) borrower and one woman borrower per bank branch for setting up a greenfield enterprise.

5.7 Entrepreneur

Entrepreneur is an innovator of new ideas and business processes. He possesses management skills, strong team building abilities and essential leadership qualities to manage a business.

Entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is a process of a action of an entrepreneur who undertakes to establish his enterprise. It is the ability to create and build something.

Role of an Entrepreneur

Entrepreneurs play a most important role in the economic growth and development of a country's economy.

1. They promote development of industries and help to remove regional disparities by industrialising rural and backward areas.
2. They help the country to increase the GDP and Per Capita Income.
3. They promote capital formation by mobilising the idle savings of the citizens and country's export trade.
4. Entrepreneurs provide large-scale employment to artisans, technically qualified persons and professionals and try to maximise profits by innovations.
5. They enable the people to avail better quality goods at lower prices, which results in the improvement of their standard of living.

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SUMMARY

- Industrial clusters are groups of firms in a defined geographic area that share common markets, technologies and skill requirements.
- Clusters may arise due to many factors. Certain clusters evolve over a long time in history when artisans settle in one locality and evolve over centuries.
- The Coimbatore region also witnessed diversification from textiles to textile machinery as well as agricultural machinery like electric motors and pumpsets for drawing ground water.
- Chennai is nicknamed as "The Detroit of Asia" because of its large auto industry base.

A-Z GLOSSARY

agglomerations	a mass or collection of things	திரட்சிகள்
Industrial Clusters	Relating to or characterised by industry.	தொழில் உற்பத்தி தொகுப்புகள்
Emergence	the process of coming into existence	தோற்றம்
diffusion	the spreading of something more widely	பரவல்
Artisanal	relating to or characteristic of an artisan	கைவினை சார்ந்த

EXERCISE

I Choose the correct answer

1. 'The Detroit of Asia' is ____________.
   a) Tuticorin b) Coimbatore
   c) Chennai d) Madurai

2. Pumpsets and motors are produced mostly in
   a) Salem b) Coimbatore
   c) Chennai d) Dharampuri

3. ____________ are an essential aspect of a nation's development.
   a) agriculture b) industry
   c) railway d) none of these

4. Tiruppur is known for
   a) Leather tanning
   b) Lock making
   c) Knitwear
   d) Agro-processing

5. A successful industrial cluster entirely created by the Tamil Nadu is
   a) Hosur b) Dindigul
   c) Kovilpatti d) Tirunelveli

II Fill in the blanks

1. Hundred of leather and tannery facilities are located around ____________ District in Tamil Nadu.
2. Special Economic Zones policy was introduced on in ____________.

III Pick out odd one

1. Which one of the following is not having leather factories?
   a) Ranipet b) Dharmapuri
   c) Ambur d) Vaniyambadi

2. Which one of the following is not a industrial developing agency?
   a) TIDCO b) SIDCO
   c) MEPZ d) SIPCOT

IV Match the following

1.	Entrepreneur	-	Export Processing Zone
2.	MEPZ	-	Coimbatore
3.	TANSI	-	Innovator
4.	Manchester of South India	-	1965

V Write Short Answer

1. Why are wages low in the agricultural sector?
2. What is meant by an industrial cluster?
3. What are the routes for cluster formation?
4. Mention any three industrial development agencies in Tamil Nadu.
5. What are the problems of industrialization currently in Tamil Nadu?
6. What is meant by entrepreneur?
7. What is entrepreneurship?

VI Write Brief Answer

1. What are the important characteristics of successful industrial clusters?
2. Write in detail about the types of policies adopted by the Tamil Nadu government to industrialise.
3. Explain the role of entreprenuer?

VII Case studies

1. Choose a cluster in Tamil Nadu based on online research and write a note on it.

VIII Activity and Project

1. Write a note on a cluster or a firm near your school/home based on your observations.

IX Life Skills

1. Teacher and students discuss about the entrepreneurs and their activities and write an essay in the topic of "If you are like a Entrepreneur".

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INTERNET RESOURCES

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2. www.msmedi-chennai.gov.in
3. www.data.gov.in

ICT CORNER

Industrial Clusters in Tamil Nadu

Steps

- Open the Browser and type the URL given below.
- You can see the list of SIPCOT in Tamil Nadu. When you click anyone in the list, you will get the details of SIPCOT in new tab.
- For example, click on the minimum support price of paddy. You can see the yearwise minimum support price of paddy, wheat and coarsegrain.
- Likewise, you can view regionwise procurement also.

Website URL:

https://www.sipcot.com/guide_tour

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